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ABSTRACT

This fifth edition has been designed for use by teachers and students as a supplement to regular textbooks as well as for the original purpose of providing vital information for foreign visitors. The 141 independent or quasi-independent nations of Europe, the Middle East, Asia and the South Pacific, Africa, Latin America, and Canada are described. Each successive edition since the first (1960) has been thoroughly revised and expanded to provide concise, up-to-date information on the population, cultures, government, history, economics, and the principal geographic features of each country: included are location, size, major cities, language, religion, political conditions, and educational systems. A calendar of national holidays, a list of the United Nations members, and notes on Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam are found in the appendices. The pages are perforated to allow distribution of the individual country fact sheets. (SBE)

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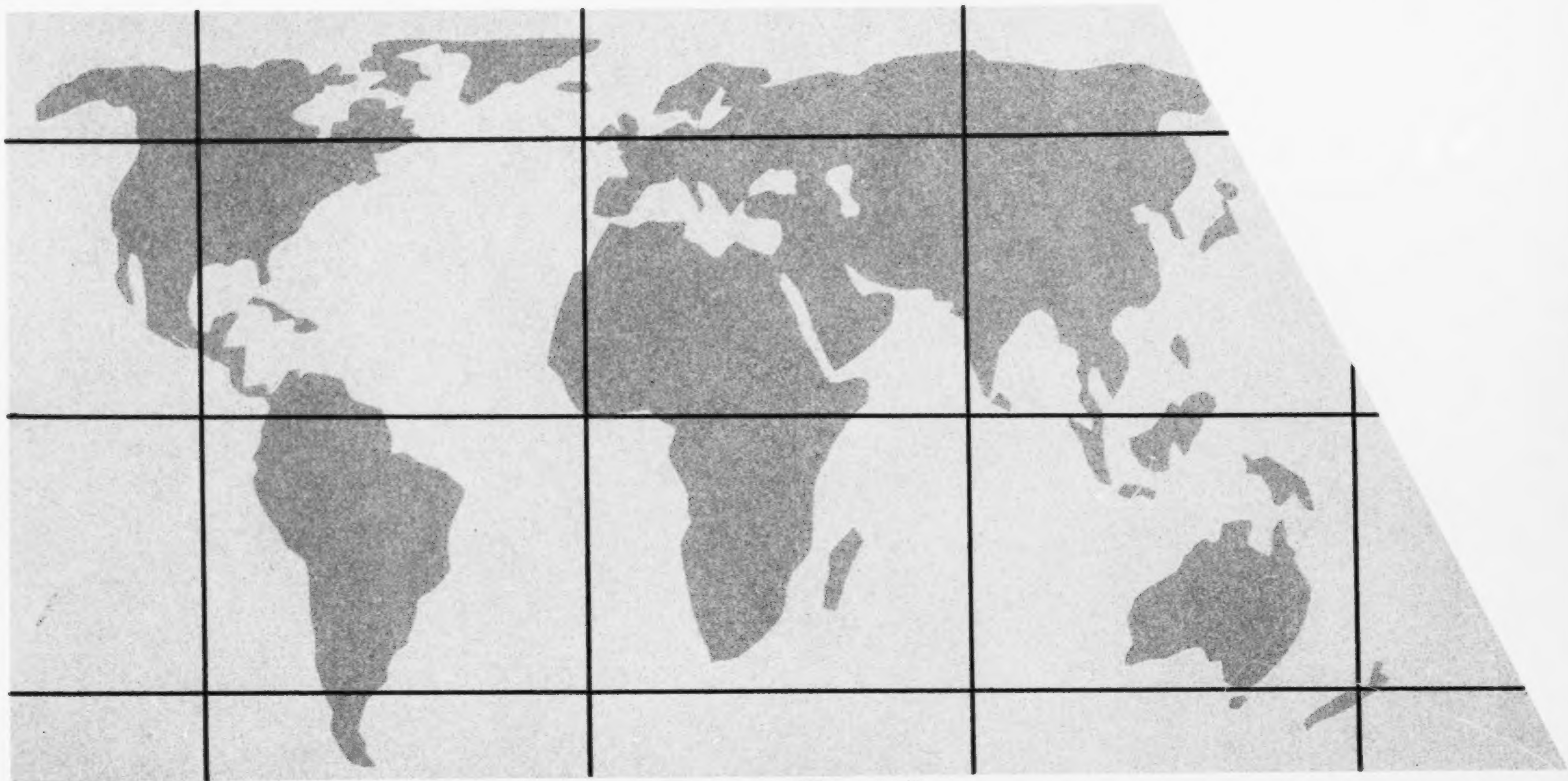

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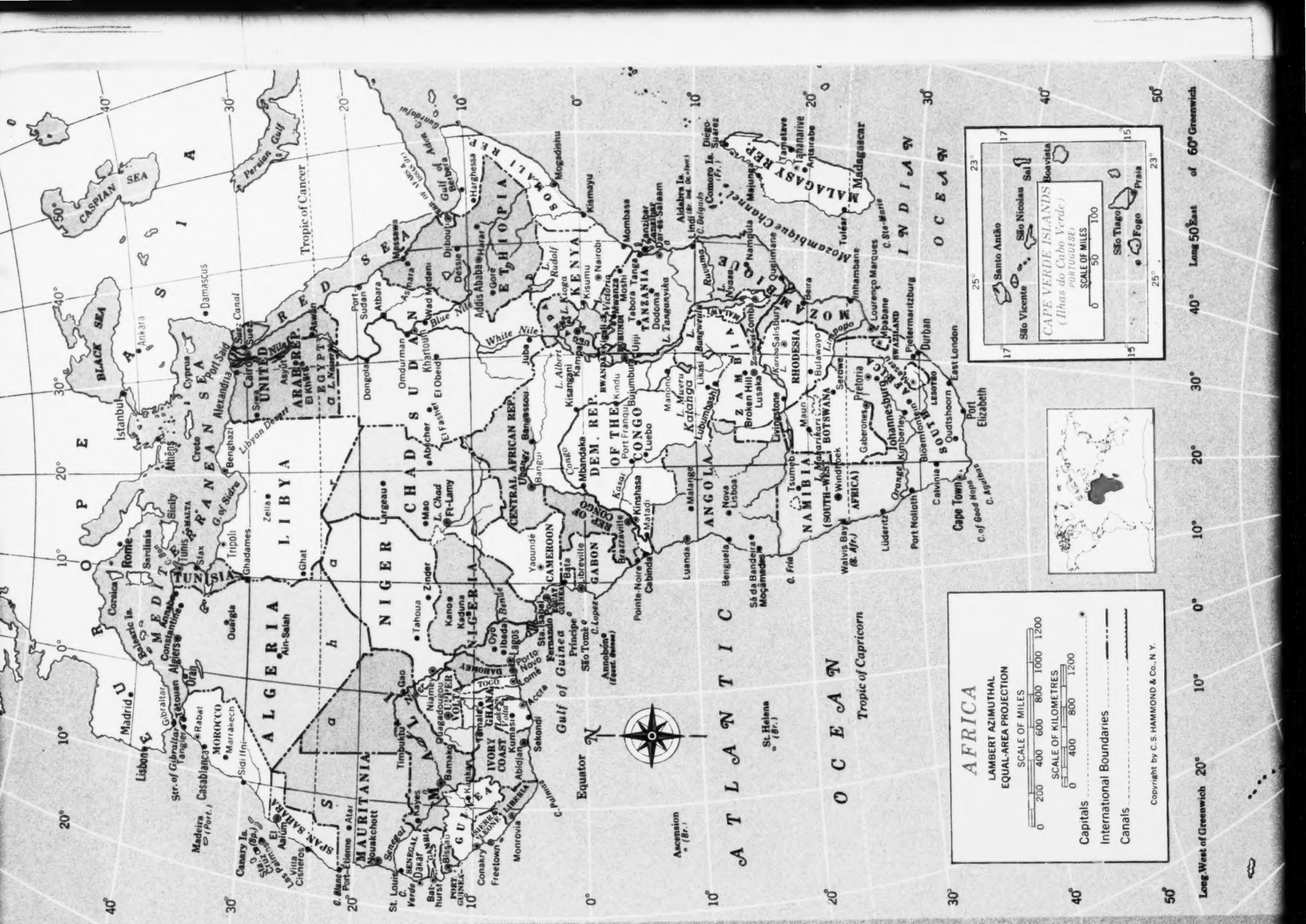
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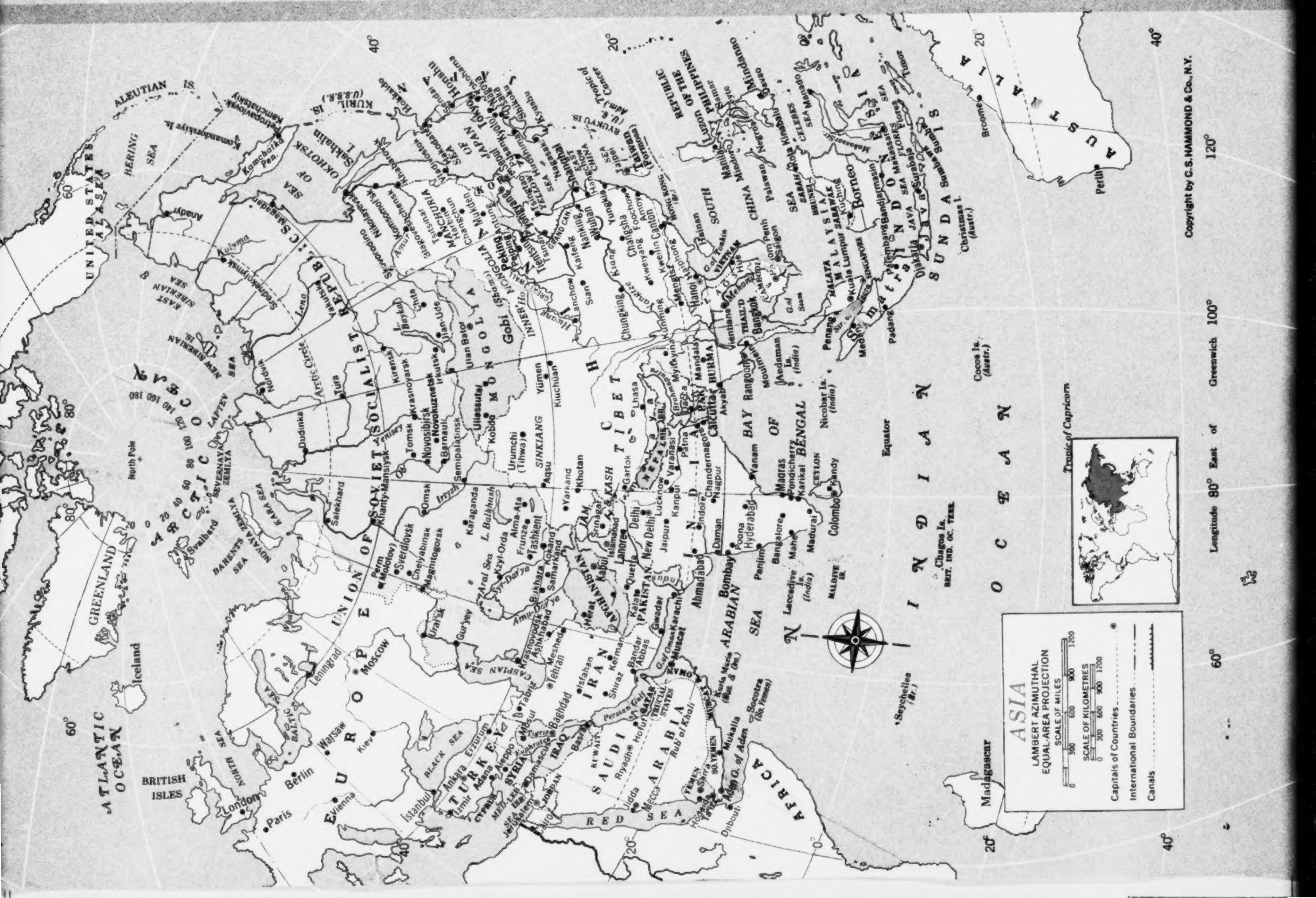
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FOREWORD

Other Lands, Other Peoples describes 141 independent or quasi-independent nations, the well-known and the unfamiliar. Since the first edition (1960), which provided data on 86 countries, each successive edition has been thoroughly revised and expanded to provide concise, up-to-date information on the population, cultures, government, history, economics, and principal geographic features of each country. This fifth edition has been designed for use by teachers and students as a supplement to regular textbooks as well as for the original purpose of providing vital information for hosts of foreign visitors.

Information for Other Lands, Other Peoples has been compiled from a variety of sources. Great effort has been expended to ensure accuracy and to provide adequate estimates where data conflict or cannot be fully authenticated. U.S. government publications have supplied a great deal of the data.

The present edition combines the advantages of a bound book and those of the former loose-leaf format. As a bound book, it can take a permanent place on the library shelf. However, a page or pages may be removed simply by tearing along the perforation near the spine. By following this procedure, the user can, if he desires, distribute the fact sheets for each country separately.

Many persons have worked on this edition. To these we are extremely grateful. Special thanks go to--

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Braulio Alonso
Director, International Relations
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November 1969

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EUROPE

Geographically one of the smallest continents in the world, Europe has for centuries been the center of Western civilization. Many of the revolutionary currents now sweeping through great areas of the non-Western world--the drive for industrial development, the emphasis on national independence, the desire for individual freedom and personal dignity--have been spurred by contact with modern Europe. Even the opposing ideologies of American democracy and Soviet communism have derived much of their inspiration from West European sources.

During the twentieth century the relationship of Europe, and of individual European states, to the rest of the world has profoundly changed. Weakened by two major wars and loss of control over large parts of Asia and Africa, Western Europe no longer has the power to dominate world affairs. Militarily, it has been outdistanced by two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union (only in part a European state). Still one of the most technologically advanced areas of the globe and still playing an important role in world affairs, Western Europe today is adjusting to many complex changes in intra-European and overseas relationships.

Restored economically after World War II with Marshall Plan assistance from the United States and allied militarily with our country through the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, the major states of Western Europe still confront Communist regimes--backed by Soviet military power--in the heart of Germany and the eastern portions of the continent. Communist Europe includes almost two-thirds of the area of the continent and nearly half its population.

One of the most significant European developments in recent years has been the emergence of new economic groupings within Western Europe. In 1957 six continental nations (France, West Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg) banded together in the Common Market (also in the European Coal and Steel Community and the European Atomic Energy Community). In 1967 these three organizations were merged to form the European Community, which is governed by a parliament and a court of justice (shared by the six member nations). The long-range goal of the European Community is a political United States of Europe. Seven other states (Britain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland, Austria, Portugal) formed the European Free Trade Association in 1960.

Concern for European unity, as well as the American position in international trade, led the United States early in 1960 to take the initiative in developing a new agency to promote policies of economic cooperation among 20 states of the Atlantic community (18 European states plus Canada and the United States). This agency, called the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, formed in 1961, is concerned not only with problems of trade and monetary stability, but also with the coordination of Western economic assistance to less-developed nations. Japan joined the OECD in 1964.

ALBANIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Albania is situated on the Adriatic coast of the Balkan peninsula, directly opposite the heel of Italy. On the north and east, Albania is bordered by Yugoslavia; on the south, by Greece. The smallest Communist state, Albania has a total area of 11,100 square miles (roughly the size of Maryland) and a population estimated at 2 million in 1969. About one million Albanians live across the frontier in the Kosovo area of Yugoslavia.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Albania's territory is rugged and mountainous. The highest peaks, up to 9,000 feet, are along the borders with Yugoslavia and Greece. Narrow valleys and steep gorges are typical of the highland region, while the lower reaches of the river valleys open onto the coastal plain. Western Albania has a 250-mile coastline on the Adriatic Sea.

CITIES: Less than one-third of the country's people live in towns and cities. Tirana, the capital and largest city, has a population of about 130,000. An inland city with government buildings of an Italianate style, Tirana has an airport which handles a limited amount of international traffic. The main coastal towns are Durrës (Durazzo) and Vlorë (Valona), with populations between 30,000 and 35,000.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The Albanians are considered descendants of ancient Illyrian tribes who migrated into the Balkan peninsula long before the Christian era. Their national language, Albanian, is classified as a separate branch of the Indo-European family derived from both ancient Illyrian and ancient Thracian tongues.

For many centuries the Albanians were ruled by successive foreign conquerors from the Italian peninsula, the Balkans, and the Middle East. In the fifteenth century the Albanian national hero, Scanderbeg, led a fierce resistance to the Turks for 25 years before the country fell completely under Turkish control and was submerged in the Ottoman Empire until 1913.

Islam spread among the Albanians in the period of Ottoman rule, and about 70 percent of present-day Albanians are Muslim. The Christian minority in Albania is divided between the Orthodox Church (20 percent) and the Catholic Church (10 percent).

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Albania was made an independent state in 1913 by agreement among the great powers. It reasserted its independence after World War I with the help of U.S. President Woodrow Wilson, who opposed efforts for its partition among Italy, Greece, and Yugoslavia. The dominant figure in Albanian political life for many years was Ahmet Bey Zogu, who became King Zog in 1927 and had to flee the country in 1939 when Mussolini's troops occupied Albania.

Toward the end of World War II, the Albanian Communists emerged as the strongest political force in the country. When the last German troops withdrew in 1944, partisan forces under Communist control moved into Tirana and seized power. A people's republic was proclaimed in 1946.

GOVERNMENT: Under the constitution of 1946, Albania is a people's republic with outward forms of representative government. A people's assembly exercises legislative functions and designates members of the cabinet. In practice, members of the assembly are elected from a single list of Communist-approved candidates and leading posts in the cabinet are occupied by Communists of high rank.

The Communist party which controls Albania is called the Albanian Workers Party. It has been led since World War II by Enver Hoxha, who also served as Albania's premier from 1944-54. Mehmet Shehu, another prominent Communist, has been premier since 1954.

ECONOMY: Traditionally Albania has been a poor agrarian land; over two-thirds of its people still are peasant farmers and herdsmen living close to a subsistence level. Most of the country's farmland has been collectivized, but production has fallen short of Communist goals. In 1959 Albania imported as much wheat as it produced at home.

Chief products of the country are tobacco, timber, wool, hides, furs, cheese, dairy products, fish, olive oil, corn, and cattle.

Few industrial enterprises existed in Albania before World War II, and industrialization has been a primary objective of the Communist regime. Communist efforts since 1947 have stressed construction of hydroelectric power stations and development of Albania's mineral resources, particularly chrome ore, copper ore, and oil. Some manufacturing plants have been built, and the country's first standard-gauge railways (80 miles) have been completed.

Loans, credits, technical assistance, and industrial equipment from the Soviet Union played a vital role in Albania's economy during the 1950's, but all Soviet aid was cut off abruptly in 1961. Communist China, which accounts for more than 50 percent of Albania's foreign trade, has sent technical experts to Albania and promised a substantial loan, but the Albanian government also has been seeking to expand its trade relations with Western nations such as France and Italy. The monetary unit is the lak.

EDUCATION: Before World War II about 80 percent of Albania's people were illiterate and only 37 percent of all school age children attended school. The Communist regime now claims that most children complete primary education· one-fourth, secondary education, and one-tenth, higher education. The present school system is patterned after that of the Soviet Union. There is one university, the University of Tirana, established in 1957.

HOLIDAYS: November 28, National Independence Day, marks the proclamation of Albanian independence in 1912. November 29, Liberation Day, marks the date in 1944 when the present Communist regime took power.

RELATIONS WITH COMMUNIST STATES: The Albanian Communists came to power through a wartime resistance movement, organized with the help of Yugoslav Communist advisers. After the war, relations between Hoxha's government and Tito's government were particularly close. By late 1947 plans even were being discussed for incorporating Albania into the federal republic of Yugoslavia.

When Stalin expelled Tito from the Communist bloc in June 1948, Hoxha sided with the Soviet Union, broke off all relations with Yugoslavia, and accused Tito of having tried to destroy Albania's independence. Thereafter, Russian advisers replaced the Yugoslavs in Albania, and Soviet aid amounting to some $200 million was supplied in the decade 1950-60. Soviet submarines were based on the Albanian coast, and Albania became a member of the East European security organization (Warsaw Pact).

By 1960 there were signs of antagonism between Tirana and Moscow, and relations worsened in mid-1961 when the Soviet Union suspended economic aid and withdrew its submarines. Khrushchev publicly denounced Hoxha in October 1961 and broke off diplomatic relations with Albania two months later. Since 1961, the Hoxha regime has been openly defying Moscow's ideological and political authority with support from the Chinese Communists. The primary reason for the Albanians' shift from Soviet to Chinese protection is believed to have been their concern over Soviet rapprochement with Tito, Hoxha's bitter enemy since 1948. Following the August 1968 Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia, the People's Assembly approved a bill providing for Albania's withdrawal from the Warsaw Pact.

RELATIONS WITH WESTERN STATES: The United States does not maintain diplomatic relations with Albania. There is no third-power representation of Albanian interests in the United States or of U. S. interests in Albania. An American mission was sent to the Hoxha government after World War II but was withdrawn from Tirana in 1946. The only Western diplomatic missions in Tirana as of January 1964 were those of France, Italy, and Turkey. Albania has been a member of the United Nations since 1955 and has played a consistent role as spokesman for Communist China there.

ANDORRA

LOCATION AND SIZE: One of the smallest countries in the world, Andorra lies high in the Pyrenees mountains between France and Spain. It covers an area of 179 square miles--less than half that of New York City. The surrounding mountains have cut the country off from the rest of the world for hundreds of years; and as a result, the boundaries have changed little since the Middle Ages.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Steep mountain peaks ranging as high as 9,665 feet above sea level tower over the deep valleys. Oak, pine, and fir trees cover the lower mountain slopes. Only grass grows farther up the mountainsides. The Valira River forms near the town of Andorra and flows into Spain.

Andorra has a dry, sunny climate. Three or four heavy snows fall each year, sometimes making the mountain road between France and Andorra impassable. In the summers the valleys are warm during the day and cool at night.

CITIES: Andorra (population 2,700) is the capital and a tourist center.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: All 13,000 Andorrans are Roman Catholics; religion greatly influences their social life. All public records are kept by the church, and only Roman Catholics can get married in Andorra.

The opening of roads to France and Spain in the 1930's and the sudden growth of tourism in the 1950's have weakened somewhat the strong patriarchal society. In spite of this, life still centers around the family; political issues are decided by family clans rather than by political parties or doctrines.

The people speak Catalan--a Romance language--but most Andorrans also understand French and Spanish. The government prints its official documents in Catalan.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: According to legend, Charlemagne either founded or freed Andorra. The first known ruler was a Spanish noble, the Count of Urgel, who controlled the region in the 9th century and then gave it to the diocese of Urgel. In the eleventh century the bishop of Urgel asked a Spanish noble, the Lord of Caboet, to defend the region. A French noble, the Count of Foix, inherited the lord's duties through marriages. The French count and the bishop fought over Andorra but finally settled their disputes by signing treaties in 1278 and 1288 that made them joint rulers.

Through marriages, the king of France inherited the count's rights. During the French Revolution, France refused to rule Andorra; but the Andorrans later asked Napoleon I to rule, and he accepted in 1806. The French ruler has been one of the "princes of Andorra" ever since.

Until the 1930's only the heads of households could vote; then in 1933 Andorran youths stormed the General Council and forced it to give all men over 25 the right to vote. In the late 1960's women began a campaign to win the vote.

GOVERNMENT: Andorra is ruled jointly by the bishop of Urgel, Spain, and the president of France. These "princes of Andorra" have equal powers and must agree before any changes can be made in Andorra's political, administrative, or judicial systems. Each sends an adviser--a vigueer--to Andorra, who serve as heads of police and as judges in the criminal courts.

Because Andorra has two rulers, it often has two sets of public services. For example, it has two postal systems--one French and one Spanish. It also has two school systems. Both the French franc and the Spanish peseta are legal tender. France represents Andorra in diplomatic relations with other countries.

Andorrans elect a 24-member General Council to regulate local matters--building construction, business permits, highways, rivers, and woods. Each prince may veto any decision made by the Council. Four council members are elected from each of Andorra's six parishes. Usually only persons whose parents and grandparents lived in Andorra can become citizens; and today as a result fewer than 40 percent who live there are citizens.

ECONOMY: Tourists, who account for almost 90 percent of Andorra's income, are mainly attracted by the ski slopes at Pas de la Casa and Soldeu, where the snow lasts until the end of April.

A few Andorrans still farm--mainly tobacco. Most of the mountain slopes are used for grazing sheep and cattle; but some farming is also done there on man-made terraces.

By law, Andorrans must own two thirds of any business; this is intended to restrict foreign investments. But in the 1920's the French were permitted to build a hydroelectric power plant; later the French and Spanish governments were each allowed to set up a radio station.

EDUCATION: Andorra has two school systems: classes in the one supported by France are taught in French; classes in the other, supported by the bishop, are taught in Spanish.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: On their national holiday, September 8, Andorrans make a pilgrimage to the shrine of Our Lady of Meritxell, the patron saint of Andorra.

AUSTRIA

SIZE AND LOCATION: A small central European country about the size of Maine, Austria has a population of 7.1 million. Surrounded by West Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Italy, Switzerland, and tiny Liechtenstein, it occupies a strategic position astride the southeastern approaches to western Europe.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The land of Austria is rugged and mountainous, with rolling hills, high plateaus, steep valleys, numerous lakes, towering Alpine peaks. Mountains cross the country from west to east, opening into the Danube Valley and plains around Vienna. Mountain villages are linked with large towns by the railway network or good roads. Austria has a temperate climate, with seasons comparable to New York and New England. There is much snow in winter and early spring.

CAPITAL CITY: Vienna, home of 1.7 million of Austria's inhabitants, vies with Paris and Rome for the title "most beautiful city in Europe." Vienna's world-famous opera house, restored at the cost of millions, is a great cultural shrine. "The Ring" parks and other sections of the city make Vienna a scene of architectural splendor. It is the chief administrative, intellectual, and commercial center of the country and formerly was the capital of the Habsburg empire. Often called the "music capital of the world," Vienna also is one of the world's best "eating towns."

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Many different European physical types are found among present-day Austrians. About 90 percent of the people are Roman Catholic by religion, about 6 percent are Protestants, and a few thousand persons of Jewish faith reside in Vienna. Nearly all Austrian citizens speak German as their mother tongue; many also speak English.

The people of each Austrian province preserve their own distinctive customs and folklore, but all of them share a common enjoyment of concert and dance music. Skiing is a favorite national sport, and the method of teaching developed by the Austrian Hannes Schneider has been used extensively in the United States. The annual Mozart festival at Salzburg attracts people from all over the world.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Under the Habsburg dynasty, Austria was for centuries the center of a multinational empire which sprawled all over central and southeastern Europe. After World War I, Austria was reduced to its present size and became a republic. Incorporated by Hitler into the Greater German Reich in 1938, the Austrian republic was restored to full independence in 1955, when the four Allied occupation powers (the U.S., Britain, France, and Russia) signed a state treaty with Austria and withdrew their military forces. Austria, a UN member since 1955, has pledged itself to perpetual military neutrality between East and West.

GOVERNMENT: A federal republic of nine provinces, Austria has a popularly elected president and two-house legislature. Major political parties are the Socialists and the conservative People's Party.

ECONOMY: Austria's economy is primarily industrial, based on hydroelectric power and substantial mineral resources. About 70% of all employed Austrians work in industry and trade. Major industries include iron and steel, aluminum, machine tools, chemicals, textiles, quality products of porcelain, leather, and wood. Forestry products such as timber and paper also are exported. Despite much mountainous terrain, Austria's farmers produce about 90 percent of all food needed by the country--meat and dairy products and wheat and other grains.

Tourism, the largest source of foreign funds, earns about $400 million annually.

EDUCATION: High educational standards are maintained, and Austria has almost no illiteracy. Free and compulsory schooling is provided between the ages of 6 and 14. There are both academic and technical secondary schools, also many vocational schools and teacher-training colleges. The country's universities are at Vienna, Graz, Innsbruck, and Salzburg.

FOOD: Breakfast is usually coffee and rolls. Dinner is eaten either at midday or 6:30 p.m. Coffee and pastry are customary in midafternoon. Main dishes are hearty; desserts are extravagant. Beer or wine often is served with meals.

HOLIDAYS: Most holidays celebrated by Austrians are those of the Catholic church.

BELGIUM

LOCATION AND SIZE: Belgium, just across the Strait of Dover from England, has land borders with the Netherlands, Germany, Luxembourg, and France. A small country about the size of Maryland, Belgium contains over 9.5 million people and is one of the most densely populated countries in Europe.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Flat lands in the north (historic Flanders) give way to forested hills and valleys in the southeast (Ardennes region). The country is crossed by canals, rivers, railroads, and highways. The small Belgian towns retain picturesque medieval features, but the large urban centers are highly modernized. The climate is mild, rainy, and temperate, similar to that of England.

CITIES: **Brussels,** the capital and largest city, has a population of 1.4 million. It is a cosmopolitan center, with a public square preserved from medieval times and modern structures built for the 1958 World's Fair. It is the headquarters of the European Economic Community. **Antwerp,** Belgium's second largest city, with nearly 850,000 people, is comparable in size to the U.S. city of Cleveland. An international business center and major European port, it is reached from the North Sea through Dutch territory. Antwerp was the home of the seventeenth-century Flemish painter Peter Paul Rubens.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Belgium is the historic homeland of two different European peoples--the Dutch-speaking Flemings of the north and the French-speaking Walloons of the south. Disagreement between the two groups came to embittered controversy after the March 31, 1968, elections. The new premier--Dr. Gaston Eyskens--tried to end the crisis by naming a cabinet of 14 Walloons and 14 Flemings. Today over half of the country's population speak a form of Dutch known as Flemish, and 34 percent speak French; about 15 percent are bilingual. In religion the Belgians are largely Roman Catholic, with an anticlerical element.

ECONOMY: Small Belgium is one of the most highly industrialized nations in Europe. It imports a high proportion of its raw materials and sells about 40 percent of its industrial output abroad. Export products include steel, textiles, cut diamonds (mainly for industrial use), chemicals, and glassware. About one-sixth of Belgium's people live in rural areas, and farmland is under intensive and skillful cultivation. Livestock raising is an important activity, making the country self-sufficient in most dairy and meat products.

GOVERNMENT: Belgium has been a constitutional monarchy since 1831. The king's authority is exercised by government ministers appointed from the majority party or parties in Parliament. Belgian women have had the right to vote since 1948.

EDUCATION: Schooling is compulsory for all children from 6 to 14 years of age. Both parochial and public schools are subsidized by the government. Belgium's four universities are Ghent and Liege (state), Brussels and Louvain (private). Largest and oldest of these is Louvain, a Roman Catholic institution founded in 1425.

FOOD: A continental breakfast of buns and coffee is usually served. Other meals tend to be lavish. Cream soup, braised beef, and oysters are among the national specialties.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 21, Belgian Independence Day, marks the date in 1831 when the first king of independent Belgium took the oath of allegiance to the constitution. Belgium won national independence after a short revolt in 1830 against Dutch rule.

BULGARIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Communist-ruled republic in southeast Europe, Bulgaria has a coastline on the Black Sea and continental frontiers with Romania on the north, Turkey on the southeast, Greece on the southwest, and Yugoslavia on the west. Covering an area of approximately 42,800 square miles, Bulgaria is about the size of Ohio.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Balkan Mountains stretch across the center of Bulgaria from east to west, their peaks ranging from 3,500 to 7,800 feet in elevation. North of the mountains is a fertile plateau sloping to the Danube River, which forms most of the boundary with Romania. South and east of the mountains is an extensive agricultural lowland, drained by the Maritsa River, which continues through Greece to the Aegean. The southwestern part of the country is a rugged area containing the Rhodope, Rila, and Pirin Mountains, as well as the narrow valley of the Struma River.

There are distinct regional variations in climate. In the southeastern lowlands along the Maritsa River and the Black Sea coast the prevailing climate is mild and subtropical. In the rest of the country the weather approximates that of the northeastern United States.

CITIES: **Sofia**, the nation's capital and principal city, has a population of around 793,000. Located in a strategic opening through the western Balkan mountains, Sofia lies about 1,700 feet above sea level, with mountain peaks rising around it. Roads extending out of the city are lined with rose trees, in bloom until early December. Sofia became Bulgaria's capital in 1879, replacing historic Tirnovo (Trnovo)--a unique town built up the sides of a deep gorge. Bulgaria's second largest city is **Plovdiv**, population about 280,000, a commercial and manufacturing center of the upper Maritsa Valley.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Bulgarians make up about 91 percent of the country's 8.3 million population. Minority groups include Turks, gypsies, Armenians, Jews, and others.

The Bulgarians received their name from a Turkic tribe called Bulgars, who invaded the region in the latter part of the seventh century and conquered the local Slavs (whose forefathers came from the area north of the Carpathians). Subsequently, the Bulgars accepted the language and customs of the Slavs and intermarried with them, the result being a merged Bulgarian people. Christianity was adopted in the ninth century, the Bulgarian tsar choosing the church of Byzantium rather than the church of Rome. Today, as in previous centuries, the great majority of Bulgarians belong to the Bulgarian Orthodox Church. Besides the Bulgarian Orthodox, there are also Bulgarian Moslems, Roman Catholics, and Protestants. The Bulgarian language is classified as a south Slavic tongue (along with Macedonian, Serbo-Croatian, and Slovenian) and is written in the Cyrillic alphabet. French and German are the most widely used Western languages, and Russian is now a compulsory subject in the schools.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Bulgaria experienced several brief periods of power and prestige in the Balkans during the medieval era, and for a few years in the tenth century Bulgarian rule extended from the Danube to the Aegean, from the Black Sea to Albania. Toward the end of the fourteenth century Bulgaria was conquered by the Ottoman Turks and for the next 500 years was under Turkish rule. A Bulgarian nationalist revival began in the nineteenth century, and by 1878 the country acquired effective independence from Turkey (with the help of Russian troops). Bulgaria declared its complete independence in 1908, at the time of the "young Turk" revolt in Constantinople. In pursuit of national territorial claims against Greece, Serbia (Yugoslavia), and Romania, Bulgaria's royal government sided with the Central Powers in World War I and the Axis powers in World War II.

When Soviet forces reached the Romanian-Bulgarian frontier early in September 1944, Bulgaria defected from the Axis side. A coalition of democrats and communists, known as the Fatherland Front, seized power in Sofia on September 9, but the Communist Party--with Soviet assistance--soon turned the Front into an instrument of its own domination. On September 15, 1946, the monarchy was abolished and a people's republic proclaimed. In December 1947, shortly after a peace treaty was concluded with the Allied nations, the Bulgarian National Assembly accepted a new constitution based on that of the Soviet Union.

GOVERNMENT: Under the constitution of 1947, the National Assembly is formally the supreme legislative organ of government. The president of the Assembly's presidium serves as titular chief of state, and members of the cabinet are designated by the Assembly. Elections for the

Assembly are from a single list of candidates, presented by the Communist-led Fatherland Front association.

In practice, the entire governmental structure is controlled by the Communist Party, whose leaders occupy top posts in the government and direct the nation's political, economic, and cultural life. Collaborating with the Communists is a second political party called the Agrarian National Union.

ECONOMY: The Bulgarian economy is under state control and is centrally planned. Industry, banking, and trade have been nationalized; over 90 percent of the agricultural land has been socialized in the form of large collective or state farms. Rich oil and gas fields were discovered near Pleven in 1964.

Traditionally, Bulgaria has been an agricultural country; and the majority of its people still live and work in the countryside. Wheat and corn are the main crops, but the country also is noted for such export specialties as Turkish tobacco, early vegetables, grapes, and oil of roses (used in making perfumes). Under the Communist regime, industry has expanded considerably and now contributes half of the national income. Within the industrial sector, the government has stressed metalworking, chemicals, and electric power. Iron, copper, lead, and zinc are produced from domestic ores, and priority now is given to developing iron and steel production. Despite industrial progress, living conditions in Bulgaria remain among the lowest in Eastern Europe.

Bulgaria's economic plans are coordinated with those of other Communist nations through the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance, and over four-fifths of its foreign trade is now conducted within the Communist bloc. The Soviet Union is its major trading partner and has supplied large credits for industrial development.

EDUCATION: Education is free at all levels, and the entire educational system is under state control and direction. Elementary schooling is free and compulsory for children between 7 and 15 years of age. Secondary education extends through the twelfth grade and is provided in both general education schools and technical schools. There are also factory schools for training skilled workers. In keeping with the Soviet "polytechnization" style, the curriculum of general education schools has been reformed since 1959 to include practical experience in "socially useful" work. Higher education is provided at the University of Sofia and various specialized institutions.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 9, the official Anniversary of the Liberation of Bulgaria, marks the date in 1944 when the Fatherland Front seized power in Sofia. Just before this coup took place, the royal Bulgarian government had declared war on Germany, and Soviet forces had entered the country without meeting any resistance. At the order of the Fatherland Front government, the Bulgarian army in Yugoslavia joined with Tito's partisans, and later the Soviet army, in fighting against the Germans.

FOOD: Hearty, healthful food predominates in the Bulgarian diet. Yogurt, a cultured milk now widely available in the United States, is consumed at virtually every meal. In addition to such dietary staples as beans, lentils, and wheat, a variety of vegetables is used in raw salads and casseroles. Mousaka, a casserole of eggplant, onions, ground meat, and tomatoes with a yogurt topping, is a typical main dish.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Communist-ruled republic in east-central Europe, Czechoslovakia is a landlocked, elongated country bounded by Austria, Hungary, the Soviet Union, Poland, East Germany, and the Federal Republic of Germany. It has a total area of over 49,000 square miles (similar to that of New York state).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The three major areas of Czechoslovakia are Bohemia, Moravia, and Slovakia. Bohemia, the westernmost area, is a plateau surrounded by mountains; it is inhabited primarily by Czechs and long has been the leading part of the country politically and economically. Moravia, a region of highlands, plains, and mountains, also is inhabited by Czech-speaking people; its Ostrava district along the Polish border contains major coal and steel industries. Slovakia, the easternmost area, has the High Tatra ranges of the Carpathians in the north, with hills and plains to the south; homeland of the Slovaks, this area is now being developed industrially by the Communist regime. Several major European rivers flow through Czechoslovakia, affording access to the North Sea, the Baltic Sea, and the Black Sea, via ports in foreign countries. The country has a temperate climate, milder in Czech lands than in Slovakia.

CITIES: Prague, in central Bohemia, is the national capital and largest city, with a population of about one million. Occupying an ancient site on the Moldau River, the city displays many revered landmarks of Czech history, e.g., the castle of Vysehrad and the Memorial of John Huss. Prague is also one of the largest centers of manufacturing and industry in the Soviet European orbit. Other major cities are Brno, population about 328,000, Bratislava, the capital of Slovakia, 268,000; Moravska-Ostrava, the country's "Pittsburgh," 265,000; and Plzen (Pilsen, 141,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Czechs comprise about 65 percent of the country's 14.2 million population, Slovaks about 30 percent. Hungarians, Germans, Ruthenians, and Poles account for the remaining 5 percent. In religion about three-fourths of Czechoslovakia's people are Roman Catholic; the rest are Protestant, Eastern Orthodox, and Jewish. Religious worship is still tolerated by the country's Communist government, but religious orders have been abolished, many leading clergymen jailed or confined, and the churches controlled by a State Office for Church Affairs. The two major and official languages are Czech and Slovak, both belonging to the Slavic language group. Russian has been the compulsory second language in schools since 1948.

Czechoslovakia formerly had many more citizens of German, Hungarian, and Ruthenian (Ukrainian) background than it does today. After World War II most of the country's Germans were deported, many of the Hungarians were exchanged for Slovaks, and the Carpatho-Ruthenian area was ceded to the U.S.S.R.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Czechoslovakia was created as a separate state following the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy in 1918. The Czechs had a national state in the Kingdom of Bohemia during the Middle Ages but lost their independence in 1620 and were under Austrian rule for nearly three centuries. The Slovaks entered a common state with the Czechs for the first time in 1918; for a thousand years previously they were under Hungarian rule.

A democratic republic from 1918 to 1938, Czechoslovakia was plagued by nationalistic feelings among its various ethnic groups. The Sudeten-German minority problem was exploited by Hitler; and under the Munich agreement of September 1938, the Czechoslovak government was compelled to cede the Sudeten-German borderland to Germany. In March 1939 Hitler's troops established a protectorate over the areas of Bohemia and Moravia and backed the creation of a separate Slovak state, while the Carpatho-Ruthenian part of the country was occupied by Hungarian forces.

After liberation by Soviet and American armies in 1945, Czechoslovakia was governed by a coalition of parties. This coalition included both democratic and communist elements and was committed to support Soviet foreign policy. In February 1948 the Communists seized power by a bloodless revolution, and in May a constituent assembly under their control approved a new constitution proclaiming Czechoslovakia a "people's democratic republic." The country's political, economic, and cultural life was rapidly transformed along Soviet lines. In 1960 the government adopted an advanced "socialist" constitution, like that of the U.S.S.R.

A Stalinist-type rule prevailed up until 1968. On March 22, 1968, Antonin Novotny, a hard-line Communist, was replaced as president by Ludvik Svoboda and as party first secretary by Alexander Dubcek. Under Dubcek, the country took steps toward more liberal political, economic, and social reforms. The internal reforms and foreign policy statements of the Dubcek leadership caused concern among certain other Warsaw Pact Communist governments and parties.

On August 20, 1968, Soviet, Bulgarian, Hungarian, Polish, and East German troops invaded and occupied Czechoslovakia. On October 16 Soviet Premier Kosygin and Czechoslovak Premier Cernik signed a treaty which provided for the stationing of Soviet troops in Czechoslovakia. The Czechoslovak leadership was also forced to curb the Dubcek reforms and to censor strictly all public media. In April 1969 Gustav Husak was named to replace Dubcek as party first secretary.

GOVERNMENT: Under the 1960 constitution, Czechoslovakia is called a Socialist Republic. The National Assembly, elected by popular vote, ranks as the "supreme organ of state power." The president of the republic, elected by the Assembly, serves as official chief of state and appoints the cabinet, which is headed by a prime minister. At the regional level there is a special Slovak National Council, elected by Slovak citizens, but its functions are limited.

In practice all government organs are subordinate to decisions of the Czechoslovak Communist Party, which is cited in the 1960 constitution as "the leading force in society and in the State." The president and key members of the cabinet are leading Communists, and elections to the Assembly are from a single list of Communist-approved candidates.

ECONOMY: The economy is under state control and is centrally planned. Industry, trade, banking, transport, and services have been nationalized, and by the end of 1960 over 87 percent of the agricultural land had been collectivized. Private ownership is limited to a few small-scale enterprises.

Czechoslovakia is one of the most industrialized nations in the Soviet orbit, and its living standards used to be the highest in Eastern Europe. The country's industrial base was developed along Western lines before World War II, and its industrial output has been greatly increased in postwar years. Today industry accounts for about two-thirds of the national income.

Under the Communist regime the traditionally prevalent textile, leather, and glass industries have yielded first place to machine building, armaments, chemicals, and electric power production. The leading export items now are machinery and industrial equipment, while half of all imports consist of fuels and raw materials for industrial use. Czechoslovakia is a member of the Soviet bloc economic organization (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance), and 70 percent of its trade is with Communist states. It has substantial trade with developing countries of the Middle East, Asia, Africa, and Latin America and also supplies them with technical aid.

EDUCATION: Czechoslovakia's educational system is under state control, and schooling is free through the university level. Under the 1960 school reform, a nine-year general education school has been made compulsory for all children aged 6 to 15. After the basic nine-year school, young people may enter apprentice training programs, go on to vocational schools, or enter preparatory secondary schools.

There are five universities and many specialized institutions of higher learning. The world-renowned Charles University at Prague dates from 1348. The "Seventeenth November University," organized in 1961, is designed particularly for foreign students.

FOOD: Hearty food, carefully prepared, is traditional in Czechoslovakia. Roast pork, served with dumplings and sour cabbage, is a favorite main dish. Dessert specialties include apple strudel and poppy seed cakes. The world-renowned Pilsener beer and Prague-style ham are still marketed abroad.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: May 9, the Anniversary of Liberation in 1945.

DENMARK

LOCATION AND SIZE: Denmark, located in northwest Europe between the North Sea and the Baltic, covers most of the Jutland peninsula (north of Germany) and a group of Baltic Islands (across from Sweden). A small country (17,000 square miles) approximately the size of West Virginia, Denmark has a population of about 4.8 million (excluding residents of the Danish-controlled Faroe Islands, population 37,000, and Greenland, population 40,000).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Except for its land boundary with Germany, Denmark is surrounded by the sea. Most of the Danish land is low and flat; there are no large rivers, only a few lakes. The sandy western part of Jutland is sparsely populated, and Danish life long has been oriented to the Baltic side of the peninsula and the nearby islands of Fyn and Zealand. Here, in eastern Denmark, lie the country's rich fields of grain, its green meadows, and its beechwood forests.

CITIES: Copenhagen, the capital, lies on the island of Zealand, facing the coast of Sweden. It is a cosmopolitan city with over 1.4 million inhabitants (including suburbs). Aarhus, on the western coast of Jutland, has a population of 187,000. Its university is located in a park, and its unique open-air museum boasts a complete medieval town reconstructed from original materials.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION: The Danish language belongs to the Scandinavian group. English is widely understood. About 98 percent of the Danes belong to the Lutheran Church, which is the official church and is headed by the king. There are also small numbers of Roman Catholics, Methodists, Baptists, and Jews.

GOVERNMENT: Denmark is a constitutional monarchy with a democratic parliamentary system of government. Parliament consists of one house, the popularly elected Folketing. No cabinet minister may continue in office after the parliament has expressed a vote of no confidence in him.

GREENLAND: Denmark has held sovereign rights over Greenland since 1933, and the Danish constitution of 1953 proclaims it an integral part of the realm. In 1951 Denmark and the U.S. concluded an agreement, within the framework of NATO, for the joint defense of Greenland. Under this agreement, the U.S. has developed a large air base at Thule in northwest Greenland.

ECONOMY: The Danish economy is partly agricultural, partly industrial. Crop yields are the highest per acre in the world, and dairy farming is a national specialty. The main farm products are butter, bacon, cheese, eggs, and meat. Denmark exports more butter and produces more bacon than any other country, except the U.S. Danish farmers are largely small independent proprietors with numerous associations and cooperative societies to deal with common interests. Danish industry has expanded greatly since World War II, with notable advances in the production of agricultural machinery, chemicals, precision instruments, and ships.

EDUCATION: Schooling is compulsory in Denmark from the ages of 7 to 14 and is free through the university level. There are two universities, one at Copenhagen and one at Aarhus. The Danish Folk High School, a novel form of adult education, is a resident, full-time institution, offering a program in Danish history and culture; it is attended voluntarily for one or more terms by persons over 18 years of age, mainly from rural areas. The folk or "people's" high school has also been adopted in other Scandinavian countries.

FOOD: Danish food is on the hearty side, with an emphasis on seafood, meat, cheese, and pastries. Vinegar and hot spices are ignored in Danish cooking, due to a general dislike of sour flavors and piquant seasonings.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: June 5, Constitution Day.

FINLAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: The most northerly of the European states, Finland borders Norway and Sweden in the northwest and shares an 800-mile frontier with the Soviet Union in the east. The southern coast of Finland dominates the sea and land approaches to Leningrad.

With a total area of 130, 165 square miles, Finland is about the size of New England, New York, and New Jersey combined. Most of the nation's 4.7 million people live in the southern part of the country.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Lakes, rivers, and forests predominate in the Finnish landscape. About 70 percent of the land is covered with trees--evergreens, birch, and aspen. Some 38 percent of the people live in cities and towns. The rest dwell largely in small rural villages and isolated homesteads. There are many navigable waterways and well-developed rail and air communications.

Finland's climate is characterized by long, cold, snowy winters and short, cool, summers, with regional differences. In Helsinki, temperatures usually range from 22 degrees in February to 62 degrees in midsummer. One-third of its length, however, lies north of the Arctic Circle.

CITIES: Helsinki, on the southern coast, is Finland's capital and largest city. A major cultural and commercial center, it has a population of 528, 000. Much of the city was built in the twentieth century. Other major Finnish cities are Tampere, north of Helsinki, and Turku, on the southeast coast, industrial cities, each of over 148, 000 population. Turku, Finland's oldest city and former capital, long has been a center of Swedish cultural influences and education.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Physically, most of Finland's people are a blend of East Baltic and Swedish ethnic groups.

Approximately 92 percent of the country's inhabitants speak Finnish. Nearly 8 percent are Swedish-speaking. About 2, 500 Lapps in the north speak their own language--Lappish. The Finnish language is related to Estonian and Hungarian, but is very different from other European languages. Finnish developed as a modern literary language in the nineteenth century, when it began to replace Swedish as the language of the educated classes. Publication of the Finnish national epic, the *Kalevala*, provided much inspiration for this cultural revival.

About 83 percent of the people belong to the Evangelical Lutheran Church, Finland's state church. The Greek Orthodox Church in Finland also is state-supported.

POLITICAL HISTORY: Finland historically has been a buffer state between Sweden and Russia, with Germany not far away across the Baltic. Under Swedish rule for many centuries, Finland was conquered by the Russians in 1809 and remained a semi-autonomous part of the Russian empire until 1917. Before securing full independence, the Finns had to fight off Bolshevik intervention in the civil war of 1918. During World War II, Finland was twice at war with the Soviet Union--during the winter of 1939-40 and again from 1941 to 1944. Political independence was saved at the price of losses of territory to the Soviet Union, payment of industrial reparations, and military neutrality between East and West.

GOVERNMENT: Finland is a republic with a parliamentary system of government. No one of the numerous political parties approaches a majority position. The president is chief executive and has wide substantial powers; the prime minister heads the cabinet; the parliament consists of one chamber, elected by universal suffrage and proportional representation. Even under the Russian Tsars, Finland had its own parliament and was the first country in Europe to grant women the right to vote (1906). The president is Urho Kekkonen, elected February 15, 1956--reelected in 1962 and 1968.

ECONOMY: The country's economy is based primarily on woodworking industries using hydroelectric power. Finland is a great producer of lumber, plywood, and furniture, of pulp, paper, and newsprint. Most of these wood products are sold abroad, primarily to Western Europe, Britain, and the U.S. Nine percent of the total land area is devoted to farming; 20 percent of the working population is employed in agriculture.

In postwar years Finland's metal, engineering, and shipbuilding industries have grown rapidly, mainly to furnish reparations and fill orders for the Soviet Union. Nearly all raw materials for these new industries have to be imported. Finland became an associate member of the European Free Trade Association in 1961.

EDUCATION: Schooling is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 16, and there is almost no illiteracy. The public school system is organized on the basis of a six-year elementary school course followed by the junior stage of secondary education. Senior secondary education is provided in vocational schools and academic schools. Many secondary schools are private institutions subsidized in part by the national government. Helsinki University, founded in 1640, is the largest of the country's six universities.

Since 1949, Finland's payments to the U. S. on the World War I loan have been used for cultural exchange. Under this exchange program, nearly one hundred Finnish citizens have come to the U. S. each year for university study or professional experience.

FOOD: The basic Finnish diet emphasizes fish, meat, potatoes, and dark rye bread. Appetizers resemble Swedish smörgasbord, but are called by a different name. Pancakes are popular for late breakfast or dessert. Finns usually begin their day with coffee plus coffee cake or sweetened bread. They eat a hearty breakfast between 10 and 12 in the morning, then have dinner between 5 and 7 in the evening.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: December 6 is celebrated as Finnish Independence Day. On this date in 1917 the Finnish Parliament issued a declaration of independence from Russia.

FRANCE

SIZE AND LOCATION: Territorially, France is the largest country of Western Europe, with an area of approximately 213,000 square miles. Its population of over 50 million is the fourth largest of Western Europe (exceeded by West Germany, Britain, and Italy). In relation to the United States, France is roughly four-fifths the size of Texas.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The land of France is geographically varied, with seacoasts and rivers, mountains and plains, busy cities and towns, and open farmlands. Its west coast lies along the English Channel and the Atlantic, its southeastern coast fringes the Mediterranean. Mountains stretch along its borders with Spain, Italy, and Switzerland; the Rhine River forms part of its boundary with Germany. In addition to metropolitan Paris, there are several large cities--Marseilles, Lyons, Bordeaux, Nice, Toulouse, Lille. Equally representative of French life, however, are the numerous towns, villages, and family farms in the country districts. The climate is generally mild and temperate. In Paris temperatures range from 32 degrees in winter to 86 degrees in summer. The Mediterranean coast has weather comparable to Florida and southern California.

CAPITAL CITY: Paris, on the river Seine, has a population of 9.8 million (including all suburbs). A world-famous cultural and intellectual center, Paris also has extensive industry and modern transportation facilities. UNESCO has its headquarters in Paris.

RELIGION AND LANGUAGE: Primarily Roman Catholic (83 percent), France has a Protestant minority of 800,000 and a Jewish minority of 300,000.

French, the national language, is a source of much pride to the country's citizens. It evolved from the Vulgar Latin spoken in the north of France, the Langue d'Oil. In 1539 French replaced Latin as the official language. In 1714, with the Treaty of Rastatt, French supplanted Latin as the diplomatic language of the Western World.

EDUCATION: The French educational system is highly centralized. Schooling is compulsory from the age of 6 to 16, and there is little illiteracy. Nearly one-fifth of the elementary school children attend Catholic schools which are partly subsidized by the state. Secondary education is offered in the lycées and colleges; the complete secondary course covers 7 years of schooling (from 11 to 18 years of age). There are 23 universities, the most famous being the University of Paris, which includes numerous institutes and colleges (as the Sorbonne).

ECONOMY: France is a great industrial and commercial nation, but two-fifths of its people still live on farms. The vineyards of the south and other regions make France the world's greatest producer of wine and brandy. Heavy industry is based largely on coal, iron, and steel produced in the north. Light manufactures include textiles and a variety of luxury goods. French labor is highly unionized, with a long-standing left-wing tradition. The largest association of unions, the Confédération Générale des Travailleurs (CGT), is now under communist leadership. Another labor federation, the Force Ouvrière, is under social democratic leadership, and still another is comprised of Catholic unions.

GOVERNMENT: The Fourth Republic of modern France lasted from 1946 to 1958. The constitution establishing the Fifth Republic was approved by referendum in September 1958. General Charles de Gaulle became president in December 1958. In May 1969 he called for a national referendum on his policies as a vote of confidence. By a margin of 53 to 47 percent, the French electorate rejected the issues. In June 1969 Georges Pompidou became France's new president. The Gaullist constitution continues universal suffrage and gives both president and premier considerable power and independence from the multiparty legislature.

FOOD: French cooking is famous for well-flavored sauces, hearty soups, crisp-crusted bread, tarts, and pastries. Breakfast is light--coffee or hot chocolate plus rolls or bread. The customary dinner hour in Paris and large towns is about 8 p.m. Table wines are used extensively with meals.

HOLIDAYS: The most important national holiday is July 14, celebrating the capture of the Bastille (French royal prison) by Parisians in 1789, a key event in the French Revolution. Many other famous events in French history are commemorated by public holidays, and there are numerous Catholic religious festivals.

GERMANY

LOCATION AND POLITICAL DIVISIONS: Germany, which occupies a highly strategic position in the center of Europe extending from the North and Baltic Seas to the Alps, has been divided since the end of World War II. The nation is ruled in the west by the Federal Republic of Germany and in the east by the German Democratic Republic (DDR)--a Communist dictatorship set up in the Soviet occupation zone.

Berlin, the former German capital, is in the Soviet zone and is divided into two parts. West Berlin has an elected government and in all practical aspects is a part of the Federal Republic, though physically separated from it. East Berlin has a Soviet-appointed government and is practically a part of the DDR. Communist authorities in 1961 erected the Berlin Wall--a wall of concrete and barbed wire to separate East and West Berlin.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Lowlands in the north give way to hills and highlands in the central region, with elevation increasing southward through the Bavarian plateau, the pine-covered Black Forest, and the craggy Alps along the Swiss border. The country's chief river, the Rhine, flows northward from the Swiss border to the Dutch border. The many modern industrial cities and large towns are linked by good roads, railways, and canals. Germany has a temperate climate. Summer days are warm, evenings cool. January is the coldest month.

FOOD: German food tends to be heavy in potatoes, dumplings, meat, cakes, and pastries. Beer is a favorite drink, often with meals; white wine also is popular. The main meal customarily is served at lunchtime, and most Germans enjoy a midmorning snack as well as afternoon coffee. Traditionally, German Catholics shun meat on Friday.

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY (WEST)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: The Federal Republic covers an area about the size of the states of New York and Pennsylvania combined and has a population approaching 60 million, more than any other West European state. About three-fourths of all West Germans are urban dwellers; nearly one out of five is a refugee or expellee from Communist-controlled areas.

Bonn, on the west bank of the Rhine, serves as the temporary capital of the Federal Republic. A city of over 150,000 people, it has modern government buildings, growing suburbs, and a well-known university. It was the birthplace of Beethoven. West Germany's largest city is Hamburg (over 1.8 million population), a major port on the Elbe River 60 miles from the North Sea. The second largest city is Munich, Bavaria's capital (over 1 million people). This industrial and cultural center is to be the host city for the 1972 Olympic Games. Cologne, Essen, Dortmund, and Dusseldorf are large cities of the Rhine-Ruhr industrial region.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION: German is the prevailing language, with regional dialects. English is widely understood. In religion, the West Germans are almost evenly divided between Protestants (50.2 percent) and Catholics (45.5 percent). Protestantism is strongest in the north; Catholicism predominates in Bavaria and the Rhineland. Most German Protestants are Lutherans. There are also about 30,000 members of the Jewish faith.

GOVERNMENT: The present Federal Republic is based on the Basic Law of 1949. It consists of 10 states (Laender), which have much legislative and administrative independence. The federal parliament has two houses: the lower one (Bundestag) is elected; the upper one (Bundesrat) represents state governments. The federal president is chief of state, and the federal chancellor is chief executive (chosen by the majority in the Bundestag). West Germany has two large political parties: the middle-of-the-road Christian Democratic Union (CDU); the Social Democratic Party (SPD), similar to the British Labor Party. In the 1969 elections neither party won a clear majority, thus likening the prospect of a coalition government.

ECONOMY: West Germany has made rapid economic recovery; today it is the leading industrial state of Western Europe. Heavy industry is based on iron, steel, and coal produced in the Ruhr region in the western corner of the country. Manufactures include all kinds of machinery and tools, world-famous chemicals, high-quality optical instruments and cameras, automobiles such as the Volkswagen, china, cutlery, and toys. Trade unionism has revived, with strong unions again existing among West German workers, employees, and civil servants. In agriculture, mixed farming prevails. Farms usually are small, not highly mechanized. Some food must be imported.

EDUCATION: Public education and all matters affecting schools are the responsibility of the states. Full-time schooling is free and compulsory up to at least the age of 14, and there is almost no illiteracy. Denominational schools are tax-supported. German universities long have attracted students from abroad, and in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries they exercised strong influence on the development of graduate studies at U. S. universities.

RELATIONS WITH WESTERN POWERS: The U. S., Great Britain, and France formally ended their occupation of West Germany in May 1955 by a series of contractual agreements with the Federal Republic. Under these agreements, the Federal Republic has full authority over its internal and foreign affairs except for special rights retained by the three powers over Berlin, the stationing of armed forces in Germany, and such matters as the reunification of Germany and a German peace settlement. The German Federal Republic is a member of NATO and the West European Union; it is not a member of the United Nations, but is a member of all UN specialized agencies, e.g., UNESCO.

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC (EAST)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: East Germany covers an area the size of Ohio and has a population of 17 million, including the inhabitants of East Berlin. The only ethnic minority is a Slavic group--the Sorbs.

About 80 percent of the people are Protestant; 11 percent, Roman Catholic; and some Jews.

The main ports are Rostock and Wismar, which together handle more than two-thirds of the foreign maritime trade.

ECONOMY: As of 1967 East Germany was the second most important industrial power in Eastern Europe (after the U. S. S. R.) and the seventh or eighth most important in the world. In recent years the country has become the U. S. S. R.'s chief trading partner--accounting for 15 percent of Soviet trade volume.

GOVERNMENT: The German Democratic Republic (DDR) was formed in 1949. Today, Walter Ulbricht heads up the DDR as Communist Party Secretary through the Socialist Unity Party of Germany (SED). In practice, important policies are formulated by the SED politburo (7 or 8 members) with the assistance of the SED secretariat.

On April 8, 1968, a new constitution went into effect; it reaffirms Communist one-party rule and close ties with the U. S. S. R.

EDUCATION: The educational system is based on the compulsory 10-class polytechnical Socialist secondary school for general education, supplemented by technical schools and 55 universities.

GREECE

LOCATION: Greece occupies the southern part of the Balkan Peninsula (jutting into the eastern Mediterranean) and includes a large number of islands, the largest of which is Crete. Mainland Greece has land frontiers in the north with three Communist states -- Albania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria -- and in the northeast with Turkey.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A small country, not quite as large as Florida, Greece is quite mountainous. The Pindus mountain range runs down the center of the country, into the Peloponnesus region, which is separated from the rest of the mainland by the Corinth Canal. The highest mountain is 9,700-foot Mt. Olympus, home of the gods of ancient Greece. The various islands account for one-sixth of the country's land area. Greece has a temperate climate with regional differences. Summers generally are hot and dry; winters usually are cold in the north, mild in the south. Ordinarily, there is little rainfall.

CITIES: About 44 percent of the country's 8.7 million population now live in urban areas. The two largest cities are Athens in the southeast, Salonika in the north.

Athens, the capital (population over 1.8 million, including suburbs and the port of Piraeus), is a modernized city with considerable commerce, some light industry, and up-to-date urban transportation. Its ancient section is famous for the classical temples that have influenced architectural styles in the West. The Parthenon, on the Acropolis, was the model for the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C. Five hundred years before the birth of Christ, the city-state of Athens was the home of democracy in the ancient world.

Salonika (population of more than 378,000) is an important Aegean seaport. The official Greek name for this city is Thessalonike.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION: Modern Greek is the national language. English and French are widely understood. Over 90 percent of the population belong to the Greek Orthodox Church (Eastern Orthodox Church of Christ)..

GOVERNMENT: The government is a constitutional monarchy, called in Greece a "crowned republic."

A pre-election coup d'etat in April 1967 led by Army Col. George Papadopoulos finally forced King Constantine to flee to exile in Rome in December 1967. Papadopoulos, who became premier, asserts that the military regime is only temporary and that elections will be held as soon as "the aims of the revolution are accomplished." In November 1968 a new Greek constitution took effect which reduced the powers of the king and parliament and increased those of the premier.

ECONOMY: Half of the working people are farmers, shepherds, or fishermen. Only one-fourth of the total area is arable, and farm yields per acre are low. While most Greek agriculture is close to a subsistence basis, much of the country's farmland is used for crops that are processed into export products -- tobacco, currants, raisins, olive oil, and cotton. Some wheat and other foodstuffs must be imported.

About one-fifth of the national income is provided by manufacturing industries, which depend on imported raw materials, machinery, and fuel. The country's industrial potential is being improved by new hydroelectric projects designed to remedy the lack of coal and oil, speed development of metallic resources, and expand farm output by economical irrigation.

The Greek economy was restored after the civil strife of the late 1940's with large-scale assistance from the United States. Greece still imports more goods than it exports, but the trade deficit in recent years has been covered by remittances from emigrants, earnings from tourism, inflow of foreign capital for investment, and a declining amount of U.S. economic aid. Since 1964, U.S. economic aid has been limited to long-term loans and surplus farm products. Greece is now an associate member of the European Common Market.

EDUCATION: Nine years of primary schooling are compulsory, beginning at age 6. The illiteracy rate has dropped from 24 percent to 15 percent in recent years. Secondary education is being reorganized to expand and improve vocational and technical training. There are six schools of university rank in Athens and others in Salonika, Patras, and Ioannina.

FOOD: The Greek diet emphasizes lamb and fish, also rice, salads, fruit, and cheese. Distinctive dishes include a lemon-flavored broth and dolmadakia (rolled vine leaves stuffed with rice, ground meat, and spices).

HOLIDAYS: The national day is March 25, Greek Independence Day. It commemorates the date in 1821 when Greeks revolted against nearly four centuries of Turkish rule. The war for independence lasted almost eight years, led to the emergence of Greece as a modern, national state. Many Americans actively supported the Greek struggle for independence. One of the most prominent American citizens who went to Greece to join the revolutionary forces was Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe of Boston.

Easter is the most important holy day of the Greek Orthodox Church; it comes somewhat later than the date celebrated by Roman Catholics and Protestants.

HUNGARY

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked country in east-central Europe, the Communist republic of Hungary is bordered by Czechoslovakia in the north, the Soviet Union in the northeast, Romania in the east, Yugoslavia in the south, and Austria in the west. Hungary has an area of approximately 36,000 square miles (comparable to Indiana).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Hungary is a broad fertile plain, broken by a northeast-southwest ridge of low mountains and hills. The Danube River flows along the northwestern frontier with Czechoslovakia, then winds southward across Hungary to enter Yugoslavia. Along the Tisza River, in the eastern part of the Hungarian plain, are treeless grasslands resembling the American prairies and the Ukrainian steppes. Among the hills of southwestern Hungary is one of Europe's largest lakes -- Lake Balaton, over 48 miles long and about 3 miles wide. The country has a temperate climate of the continental type, with cold winters, hot summers, and moderate rainfall.

CITIES: Budapest, on the upper Danube, is the nation's capital and largest city. About 1,970,000 people live in Budapest and its suburbs. Modern Budapest is a combination of two historic cities on opposite banks of the Danube -- the royal city of Buda and the merchant city of Pest, the latter now containing the major government buildings as well as stores and factories. Four other Hungarian cities have populations between 120,000 and 170,000: Miskolc, Debrecen, Pecs, and Szeged.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Hungarians make up more than 96 percent of the country's 10.2 million population, and the rest are divided among several minor nationalities. In religion Hungary has long been an outpost of western Christendom. Over two-thirds of its people are Roman Catholic, and most of the rest are Protestant (largely Calvinist and Lutheran).

The Hungarians call themselves Magyars, after the Central Asian tribe which invaded the Tisza-Danube plain at the end of the ninth century and developed one of the most powerful medieval kingdoms in east-central Europe. The first Magyar king, Stephen I, accepted Christianity from Rome and was canonized in 1038. The Holy Crown of St. Stephen became the national symbol. The last Magyar king was killed in the sixteenth century when the nation was disastrously defeated by the Ottoman Turks.

The Magyar tongue has survived as the national language of the Hungarian people. Magyar, although written in the Latin alphabet, differs from most other languages used in Europe. It belongs to the Finno-Ugric family and has some features similar to Finnish and Turkish. Many Hungarians today also speak German, French, or Russian.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: After the Turks were turned back at Vienna in 1683, Hungary was dominated politically by the Habsburgs, the ruling family of Austria. In 1848 the Hungarians revolted under the leadership of Louis Kossuth, who later sought refuge in the United States. Although the uprising was crushed by Habsburg and Russian armies, Hungary in 1867 was granted a measure of self-government, its "king" being the Emperor of Austria. As a result of World War I, Hungary was separated from Austria and greatly reduced in size.

Independent Hungary was briefly a democratic republic, then a Communist republic under Bela Kun, and from 1920 to 1944 a "kingdom without a king" ruled by Admiral Horthy as regent. To regain territories "lost" by the peace treaty of 1920, Hungary allied itself with the Axis powers, only to "lose" these territories again by the peace treaty of 1947. Only one of the "lost" territories has a predominantly Hungarian (Magyar) population, namely, the Transylvanian region of Romania.

Hungary was conquered by Soviet troops in 1944-45. For the next two years it experienced relatively free parliamentary government under a provisional regime which included a Communist minority. The Hungarian Communist party took over the government in 1947 with the aid of Soviet occupation authorities and introduced a Soviet-type constitution in 1949.

In October 1956 demonstrations led by Budapest intellectuals sparked a nationwide revolt against the Communist dictatorship. This spontaneous uprising temporarily unseated the local Communist bosses, but was soon repressed by Soviet military forces. The present Communist regime, installed by the U. S. S. R. in November 1956, has resumed the process of sovietizing Hungarian life.

GOVERNMENT: Under the constitution of 1949, Hungary is a people's republic. The chief governmental organs are the National Assembly, formally elected by popular vote; the Presidential Council, which serves as collective head of state; and a cabinet headed by a prime minister. In practice, the government is directed by the Hungarian Communist Party, which was reconstituted after the 1956 revolt and given a new name (the Hungarian Socialist Worker's Party) and a new leader (Janos Kadar). The party's central committee was enlarged in 1966.

ECONOMY: Fertile soil is Hungary's principal natural resource. Before World War II, the country was a major supplier of bread grains to Western Europe.

Hungary's economy is under state control and is centrally planned. Industry, banking, transport, and most of the trade network have been nationalized. About 96 percent of the agricultural land has been collectivized, largely since 1959.

Major economic reforms were launched early in 1968, switching from a central planning system to one where market forces and a profit principle control much of production. This change lifted farm incomes 20 percent and industrial wages 6 percent by mid-1968.

Hungarian economic plans are coordinated with other Soviet bloc nations through the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance, and two-thirds of all Hungary's foreign trade currently is conducted with the Soviet bloc. Trade with non-Communist countries remains important for earning Western currency, which Hungary needs to purchase machinery for further industrial development.

EDUCATION: Hungary's high literacy rate is similar to that of West European countries. Education is financed by the state and is under state control. Education is compulsory for eight years. Polytechnical training in the new Soviet style was introduced in 1961; it is designed to acquaint children and young people with conditions of farm and factory work. There are 91 universities and other schools of higher learning.

FOOD: The most renowned Hungarian dish is *gulyas*, known in the West as goulash; it is usually made of red onions, cubed meat, and paprika, and it is often eaten with noodles. A favorite dessert is the *dobos torta*, a cake of many thin layers, filled with chocolate and caramel. The Tokay wine -- from Tokay, in the northeast -- of Hungary is world-famous.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: April 4, the official national holiday, commemorates the "liberation" of Hungary by Soviet troops in 1945.

CULTURAL NOTE: Many Hungarians have made notable contributions to Western culture and science. Famous Hungarian musicians include the composers Franz Liszt (1811-86), Bela Bartok (1881-1945), and Zoltan Kodaly (b. 1882). The country's greatest lyric poet, Sandor Petofi (1823-49), is also revered as an ardent patriot; his *Arise Hungarians* stirred the Magyars against the Habsburgs and inspired many of the freedom fighters of 1956.

About 1.5 million Americans are of Hungarian descent. Several Budapest-born scientists have contributed greatly to U.S. atomic research, e.g., Leo Szilard and Edward Teller.

ICELAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: An island of volcanic origin in the north Atlantic Ocean, Iceland (about the size of Kentucky) lies just below the Arctic Circle somewhat east of Greenland.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Iceland is very mountainous with numerous volcanoes, hot springs, and glaciers, but is virtually devoid of trees. Its interior is high and barren, and most of the people live in the lowlands of the southwest. The island has an oceanic-type climate, with cool summers and moderately cold winters tempered by the Gulf Stream.

CAPITAL: Reykjavík, a frontier-type city of 78, 400 people, is situated on the southwest coast. Built on low hills overlooking the harbor, the city is constructed largely of concrete and is heated with water from hot springs.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The over 200, 000 people of Iceland generally tend to be reserved, industrious, and well-read. The population is remarkably homogeneous and over 80 percent urban. The island was settled originally by Norwegians in the Viking Age, and many later settlers came from Ireland and Scotland. There are no Eskimos on Iceland.

The national language is Icelandic, a Scandinavian tongue which appears to have originated from Old Norse. Icelandic has been kept relatively pure of foreign borrowings, and many gifted Icelanders of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have devoted themselves to the study of ancient Icelandic poetry and heroic sagas. English and Danish are taught in the schools as second languages.

Most Icelanders belong to the Evangelical Lutheran Church, the established, state-supported church. About 2 percent of the country's people are Roman Catholics or members of other religious groups.

GOVERNMENT: Iceland is a constitutional republic, headed by a popularly elected president. The prime minister and cabinet are responsible to parliament. Iceland's national parliament, the Althing, is the oldest parliamentary assembly in the world, founded in 930.

In the thirteenth century Iceland came under the rule of the Norwegian king. During the next six centuries it was subject to the king of Denmark. In 1918 it became independent, united with Denmark only to the extent that the Danish king also was King of Iceland. The present republic was founded in 1944, when the Althing terminated the union of 1918 with Denmark.

DEFENSE: Iceland has no military forces of its own. It is a charter member of NATO, which maintains an American-manned air-radar base at Keflavík.

ECONOMY: Fishing is the major economic activity, with fish and fish products supplying 95 percent of Iceland's exports. The catch includes herring, cod, haddock, and ocean perch. Extending the nation's fishing limits to 12 miles resulted in heated disputes with other countries whose fishermen habitually fish those waters. Crops include potatoes, hay, and turnips. Sheep raising is important, and the famous Icelandic pony is bred extensively. Table vegetables now are grown in greenhouses heated by hot water from the springs. As part of an economic development program, an ammonium nitrate plant and a cement factory have been built near Reykjavík.

EDUCATION: Eight years of schooling is free and compulsory, and there is virtually no illiteracy. Reykjavík has one university and three junior colleges. Outstanding writers and artists are subsidized by the government.

FOOD: Local food consists primarily of smoked and dried fish and smoked lamb.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: June 17, anniversary of the establishment of the republic (1944).

REPUBLIC OF IRELAND (EIRE)

LOCATION AND SIZE: An island country just west of Britain, the Irish Republic is somewhat smaller than Maine and has a population of over 2.8 million.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The coastline of Ireland is deeply indented and rimmed by cliffs. Much of the interior is a fertile, green plain, broken by low mountains and hills. The largest river is the 250-mile-long Shannon; the best-known lake is Killarney. Small farms are scattered across the countryside, and tiny villages serve as market centers. The climate is mild and moist, warmed by the Gulf Stream. Rain, fog, and mist account for the greenness of the land, which has won for Ireland the name "Emerald Isle." No part of the country is more than 70 miles from the sea.

CITIES: Dublin, the capital, has a population of 584,000, somewhat more than the city of Seattle. It is Ireland's largest city and chief port, built on both sides of the River Liffey at the head of a deep bay. One of the oldest cities in Europe, Dublin is a blend of the ancient and the modern -- of medieval castles, handsome eighteenth-century Georgian houses, and industrial establishments.

Cork, on the River Lee, near the southern coast, has a population of about 115,000. Blarney Castle with its famous stone is just a few miles from the city.

LANGUAGE: Two different languages are spoken in Ireland. Gaelic, derived from an old Celtic dialect, and English. Three great modern writers of Irish background -- Shaw, Joyce, and Yeats -- wrote their masterpieces in the English language.

RELIGION: About 94 percent of the people in the Irish Republic are Roman Catholics; the next largest religious group is Protestant Episcopal (4 percent).

GOVERNMENT: The Republic of Ireland has had full independence since 1949, when Britain officially recognized its secession from the Commonwealth. The six northern counties of the island remain attached to the United Kingdom, but the Republic of Ireland does not recognize Britain's claim to these predominantly Protestant counties. The Irish Republic is headed by a popularly elected president. The prime minister serves as chief executive and is responsible to the elected chamber of the bicameral parliament.

ECONOMY: Stock raising and dairy farming predominate in Ireland's agricultural economy; the main food crops are wheat, potatoes, and sugar beets. More than a third of the population works on farms. Food processing and textiles are the chief industries. Tourist trade is an important source of national income, and Shannon Airport is a significant economic center. The government has a five-year program for economic expansion covering 1965-70. A switch to the decimal coinage system is planned for 1971.

EDUCATION: School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14. Elementary education is provided in "national" schools, which are supported by the government but usually owned by religious groups organized by parents. All secondary education is given in private schools, many of them operated by Catholic orders and most of them subsidized and inspected by the government. The University of Dublin (Trinity College) was founded in 1591; the much newer National University of Ireland has three constituent colleges -- at Dublin, Cork, and Galway.

FOOD: Irish food is quite similar to American food. Hickory-smoked ham, crisp bacon, and fish dishes are Irish specialties. Breakfast and lunch are on the hearty side, afternoon tea is customary, and dinner tends to be early (about 6:30 p.m.).

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: March 17, St. Patrick's Day.

ITALY

LOCATION AND SIZE: The boot-shaped Italian peninsula extends southward from the Alps into the Mediterranean Sea. The country also includes two large islands: Sicily (just off the southern "toe" of the peninsula) and Sardinia (some distance from the west coast of the peninsula). Mainland Italy has land frontiers in the north with France, Switzerland, Austria, and Yugoslavia. Italy has a total land area of approximately 116, 000 square miles (somewhat larger than Colorado).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Much of Italy is mountainous and hilly. The Alps lie along its northern borders with Switzerland and Austria, while the Apennines form an infertile spine down most of the peninsula. In the north, between the Alps and Apennines, is the Po River basin with some of Italy's richest farms and most of its heavy industry. The southern part of the peninsula and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia are rocky and mountainous, with agricultural areas subject to severe droughts. The climate is temperate, with regional differences. Summers generally are warm or hot. Winter weather varies--cold in the north, cool in the area around Rome, and mild and somewhat rainy in the south.

CITIES: Rome, the capital city on the Tiber River near the west-central coast, has nearly 2. 6 million people. It is the largest city in Italy, and one of the oldest in Europe. World-renowned as the Eternal City, it contains great ruins of the ancient Roman Empire and imposing Renaissance churches. It is also renowned as a center of opera and music and is the headquarters of the UN Food and Agricultural Organization.

Milan, in the north, is Italy's leading business and industrial city, home of La Scala Opera. Turin, near the French border, is a rail and industrial center with Fiat motor vehicle plants. Florence, somewhat north of Rome, was the "cradle of the Renaissance" under the Medici family. Bologna, north of Florence, is a rail and manufacturing center with the oldest university in Europe (A. D. 1088). Italian ports include Genoa, Trieste next door to Yugoslavia, and Naples in the south near volcano Vesuvius and the Isle of Capri. Venice, the famous city of canals, is steadily sinking into the sea; experts believe that two-thirds of it will be under water by 1990 unless some way is found to save it.

The capital of world Catholicism, Vatican City lies within the City of Rome but is an independent state ruled by the Pope. It contains the Vatican Palace and St. Peter's cathedral.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The estimated 53 million (1968) Italians vary widely in physical characteristics. Southern Italians tend toward the Mediterranean type, short in stature with a dark and swarthy complexion. Northern Italians generally are taller and fairer, sometimes with blond hair.

Throughout Italy, Roman Catholicism is the chief faith and state religion. Religious minorities include around 150, 000 Protestants and a Jewish community of about 35, 000.

The national language is Italian, with regional dialects. Some minorities in border areas speak German, French, or Slovene. English is widely understood.

MODERN HISTORY: National unification was proclaimed in 1861 by the Italian parliament in Turin and completed in 1870 with the occupation of Rome. Chiefly responsible were Cavour, Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Sardinia's House of Savoy (which became the monarchy of the new state). From 1922 to 1945 Italy was a Fascist dictatorship under Mussolini.

GOVERNMENT: Italy became a republic after the elections of June 1946, when its people voted 6 to 5 against the monarchy. Under the present constitution, in force since January 1948, the government is a parliamentary-type democracy with a bicameral legislature, a premier, and a president. The middle-of-the-road Christian Democratic party has been at the core of all postwar governments. Italy's Communist party, the largest in Western Europe, polled almost 27 percent of the vote in the May 1968 elections.

ECONOMY: Italy has a mixed industrial and farm economy, with 24 percent of all employed people in agriculture. Postwar governments have stressed increased industrialization and improved farming methods to relieve underemployment.

Farms vary from large, mechanized estates to tiny plots worked by hoe and sickle. Postwar land reforms have made tangible progress in the depressed south. Crops include wheat, potatoes, corn, rice, fruits, olive oil, and wine.

Industry, concentrated in the north, relies heavily on hydroelectric power. Iron and steel production as well as textile industries draw mainly on imported raw materials. Marble is abundant, the Carrara quarries being world-famous.

EDUCATION: School attendance is compulsory from 6 to 14 years of age, but many rural children attend school irregularly. Two-thirds of all pupils leave school after the elementary grades. Considerable illiteracy exists in the south. Italy has 36 universities and institutes of higher learning.

FOOD: Many types of spaghetti, macaroni, and noodles (pasta) are eaten, often with tomato or meat sauce. Rice dishes are popular, and veal is a favorite meat. Expresso coffee is favored.

HOLIDAYS: June 2 is celebrated as the anniversary of the republic (1946). Numerous holy days and festivals of the Catholic Church also are observed.

LIECHTENSTEIN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Located in south-central Europe, Liechtenstein is only 61 square miles in area--8 less than Washington, D. C. Liechtenstein lies on the upper Rhine between Austria and Switzerland.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Although Liechtenstein is high in the Alps, it has a mild climate. Warm spring winds provide good weather for growing fruit. The average yearly temperature is 47 degrees. The Rhine River flows along the western border; a narrow strip of flat farmland lies next to the river, where most of the people live. The slopes of the snow-topped mountains--which cover most of the country--have pine forests and fine grazing meadows.

CITIES: Vaduz (4, 000 population) is the capital and largest town. One of the world's finest private art collections, owned by the prince, is housed in Vaduz. It includes works by Breughel the Elder, Botticelli, Rembrandt, and Rubens.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The 21, 000 population (1969 estimate), like the Austrians and Swiss, are descended from a Germanic tribe that settled in the Alps during the 400's. Most live in small country villages; over half work in small factories or as craftsmen. About 20 percent raise beef and dairy cattle or grow fruit and vegetables. The official language of this predominantly Roman Catholic country is German.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Charlemagne, king of the Franks, controlled the area that is now Liechtenstein at the end of the eighth century; after his death the area was divided into Vaduz and Schellenberg. Johann-Adam Liechtenstein, a prince from Vienna, bought Schellenberg in 1699 and Vaduz in 1712. His descendants still rule Liechtenstein. Liechtenstein became part of the Holy Roman Empire in 1719; but Napoleon abolished this empire, and Liechtenstein became an independent country in 1806. In 1815 Liechtenstein joined the German Confederation, a league of German rulers, but kept its independence. The confederation dissolved in 1866 at the end of the Seven Weeks' War, the last in which Liechtenstein fought. The country has remained neutral since then and has had no army since 1868.

In 1852 Liechtenstein agreed to an economic union with Austria-Hungary but ended its union with Austria after World War I. In 1924 it signed a similar agreement with Switzerland, which now administers Liechtenstein's posts and telegraphs, customs, and foreign interests.

GOVERNMENT: Liechtenstein is ruled by a prince, but a prime minister--appointed by the prince--actually directs the government. Under the 1921 constitution, legislative powers reside in a 15-member parliament elected for four years by direct vote (on a basis of male suffrage and proportional representation). The reigning prince is Franz Joseph II, who succeeded his uncle, Prince Franz I, on the latter's abdication March 30, 1938. Prime Minister Gerald Batliner is the head of government. Although there is no army, there is a police force of 26, with 24 auxiliaries.

ECONOMY: Liechtenstein excels in making machines and tools, cloth, false teeth, ceramics, and canned food. Wine and agricultural products are also exported. Finely engraved postage stamps--many of which are reproductions of the paintings in the prince's art collection--are sold to philatelists around the world. One important source of revenue is the taxing of foreign businesses that set up their headquarters in Liechtenstein.

EDUCATION: Primary and secondary schooling is free, and children must attend school for eight years.

LUXEMBOURG

LOCATION AND SIZE: Only 999 square miles in area, Luxembourg is one of Europe's oldest and smallest independent countries. It lies in northwest Europe where West Germany, France, and Belgium meet.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Luxembourg has two distinct land regions, the Ardennes (which covers the northern third of Luxembourg) and the Bon Pays (which makes up the rest of the country). The Ardennes is part of a mountain system that extends from West Germany's Rhineland into Belgium. River valleys cut deeply through the region's low hills. Buurgplaatz (1, 835 feet), which lies in the Ardennes, is the highest point. Most of the Bon Pays--an important farming region--is a hilly or rolling plateau with level areas along its rivers.

The climate is cool, temperate, and moist, with summer temperatures averaging 60 degrees. Most snowfalls occur high in the Ardennes.

CITIES: Luxembourg (population nearly 80, 000) is the capital and largest city. Esch-sur-Alzette (population 28, 000) is the center of the steel and mining district.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The estimated 345, 000 population (1969) is predominantly Roman Catholic. The people are ethnically a blend of French and German. Over the past 75 years there has been considerable immigration from Italy and other Mediterranean countries.

Almost all Luxembourgers speak Letzburgesch, a German dialect. French and German are taught in the schools; most books and newspapers are printed in German. The courts use French, but French, German, and Letzburgesch are used in parliament.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Luxembourg's history began in 963 when Count Siegfried of Ardennes built a castle on the site of the present-day city of Luxembourg. Luxembourg became prominent in 1308 when Count Henry of Luxembourg became ruler of Germany. The Luxembourg family ruled the duchy until 1443 when The Netherlands gained control. For about 450 years whoever ruled The Netherlands ruled Luxembourg.

In 1815 the Congress of Vienna made Luxembourg a grand duchy ruled by The Netherlands. Luxembourg became largely self-governing in 1839, but the Dutch king continued to rule until 1890 when Wilhelmina became the Dutch queen. Luxembourg's association with The Netherlands then ceased because the grand duchy's laws did not allow a woman to rule. In 1912 the laws were changed to allow Marie Adelaide of Nassau to become the ruling grand duchess. Her sister Charlotte succeeded her in 1919. In 1964 Charlotte abdicated to allow her son, Prince Jean, to become grand duke.

GOVERNMENT: The chief executive is the grand duke (or duchess) of the House of Nassau, who appoints the cabinet made up of a prime minister and seven others, each of whom is in charge of one or more government departments. The grand duke also appoints the 21 members of the Council of State for life. The Chamber of Deputies passes all laws.

ECONOMY: Luxembourg's most valuable resource is iron ore, which is mined in the south. About a third of the workers are employed in seven steel mills near Esch-sur-Alzette, Dudelange, and Differdange. In addition to manufacturing iron and steel, Luxembourg's factories produce ceramics, machinery, and paints.

About a third of the people farm (oats, potatoes, and wheat) and raise stock (pigs, cattle, poultry, sheep). The vineyards of the Moselle Valley produce excellent white wines.

Luxembourg, a member of the European Economic Community, trades chiefly with other community members. Iron and steel products make up about 85 percent of its exports. Its chief imports are automobiles, coal, cotton, and farm machinery.

EDUCATION: The law requires children between the ages of 6 and 15 to attend school. Luxembourg has an International University of Comparative Science and several technical and vocational schools.

FOOD: Ham and fresh-water fish, especially trout, are favorite foods. Beer and wine are popular beverages.

MALTA

LOCATION AND SIZE: An island country in the Mediterranean Sea about 60 miles south of Sicily and midway between Gibraltar and Suez, Malta covers an area of 122 square miles. It consists of the islands of Malta, Comino, Cominotto, Filfla, and Gozo. Malta and Gozo are the largest and most important. Malta island covers 95 square miles and has a 62-mile coastline. Gozo covers 26 square miles. Cominotto and Filfla are tiny and uninhabited.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Malta has a mild climate; sea breezes moderate the summer heat. Winters are moist and mild; summers are hot and dry. Temperatures average 66 degrees. Strong northwest winds sometimes reach hurricane force in autumn and winter.

The country has neither mountains nor rivers; terrace farming makes the countryside look much like giant steps. The well-indented coastline is 85 miles long on Malta, 27 on Gozo.

Malta has strategic importance because of its location and its natural harbors. British Mediterranean fleet headquarters are there; the North Atlantic Treaty Organization also has its Mediterranean area headquarters in Malta.

CITIES: Valletta, on the island of Malta, is known for its excellent natural harbor and has been the capital since 1565. More than half Malta's total population is concentrated in the Valletta area.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Malta's estimated 315, 000 population (1969) speak Maltese, a West Arabic dialect with some Italian words. The main ethnic backgrounds of the Maltese people are Carthaginian and Phoenician. Both English and Maltese (a semitic language) are official languages; Maltese is used in the courts. There are both Maltese and English newspapers. Roman Catholicism is the state religion; there are, however, churches of a number of other religions.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Remains of late Stone Age and Bronze Age men in limestone caverns and rough stone buildings from early ages have been discovered in Malta. The Phoenicians colonized Malta in about 1000 B. C.; their temples, tombs, and other relics still stand. Greek, Carthaginian, Roman, and Arab conquerors followed the Phoenicians into Malta.

Malta passed to the Norman kings of Sicily around 1090. In 1520 the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V inherited the area when he received the crown of Spain. In 1530 Charles V gave Malta to the Knights of the Order of Saint John of Jerusalem. The Knights, who wore the Maltese cross as their badge, had fought against the Moslems since the time of the First Crusade in the 1090's. In 1565 the Turks laid seige to Malta. Although heavily outnumbered, the Knights held out against the Turks for months and finally defeated them.

The French under Napoleon took Malta from the Knights of Saint John in 1798, but British forces drove them out in 1800. During World War I Malta served as a naval base for Allied forces. During World War II Malta controlled the sea lanes between Italy and Africa. In 1942 King George VI of England awarded the George Cross to Malta in recognition of the people's wartime efforts.

An independence movement began to grow in 1958. A constitution, approved in 1962, provided for internal self-government; full independence was granted by Great Britain on September 21, 1964.

GOVERNMENT: Malta is a constitutional monarchy. The British queen, recognized as Malta's queen, is represented by a governor-general. The prime minister--head of government and leader of the majority party in parliament--is elected to a five-year term. The 50 members of the House of Representatives are elected to five-year terms.

ECONOMY: Tourism is a growing industry. In addition to its balmy climate, Malta also has some of the world's finest examples of Baroque and Renaissance art and architecture.

The country has no minerals or natural resources, except salt and limestone. Most people work at the dockyards or in the building industry.

Malta imports more than it exports; nearly half its trade is with Great Britain. Italy is its second most important trading partner.

EDUCATION: Malta has compulsory elementary education for all children ages 6 to 14. About 120 Roman Catholic primary and secondary schools are operated by the government. The country also has about 80 private primary and secondary schools. Parents may choose whether their children are taught in English or Maltese. Until World War II the schools taught Italian; but English has replaced Italian in the schools. The Royal University of Malta is at Valletta.

MONACO

LOCATION AND SIZE: One of the smallest countries in the world, with an area of less than one square mile, Monaco lies on the French Riviera coast of the Mediterranean Sea. France borders it on three sides.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Monaco lies at the foot of Mt. Agel (3, 600 feet). In some places the principality stretches only 200 yards inland from the Mediterranean.

The country has a mild winter climate, with an average January temperature of 50 degrees. Summer temperatures rarely exceed 90 degrees.

CITIES: Monaco has four distinct parts--three towns and a small industrial area. Monaco, the old town and former fortress, stands on a rocky point 200 feet high. It is the capital and is dominated by the royal palace, part of which was built in the thirteenth century. Monte Carlo--also perched on a terraced cliff overlooking the Mediterranean--has the famous gambling casino, the opera house, hotels, shops, beaches, and swimming pools. The port area, La Condamine, lies between the town of Monaco and Monte Carlo. The industrial zone, called Fontvieille, lies to the west of the town of Monaco.

Drivers from all over the world compete each year in the Monte Carlo Rally and drive more than 2, 000 miles from starting points in many parts of Europe for the competition at Monte Carlo. In the Monaco Grand Prix, top racing drivers guide their cars on a 200-mile automobile race through the twisting streets of Monaco.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Only about a seventh of Monaco's 24, 000 people are Monégasque. Nearly half are French; and most of the others are Italians, Germans, British, and Americans. French is the official language; but most Monégasques converse in a local dialect called Monégasque, which is based on French and Italian.

Many wealthy people from other countries make Monaco their permanent home because the principality has no income tax. Since 1963, however, most Frenchmen living in Monaco have had to pay income tax at French rates.

The Monaco government awards the Ranier III prize for literature each year to a writer in the French language. Monaco has libraries (including the Princess Caroline Library, which specializes in children's literature), a marine museum, a prehistoric museum, a zoo, and botanical gardens. The marine museum houses a collection of rare exhibits, one of the world's leading aquariums, and a laboratory for marine research. The Grand Theater of Monte Carlo presents performances by great singers and ballet dancers. Leading conductors and soloists perform with Monaco's national orchestra.

The state religion is Roman Catholicism, but there is complete freedom of worship.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Phoenicians from the eastern Mediterranean probably settled in Monaco about 700 B. C. In Greek and Roman times Monaco was an important trading center, and its harbor provided shelter for ships from many lands. The Genoese, from northern Italy, gained control of Monaco in the 1100's and built the first fort there in 1215. In 1308 the Genoese granted governing rights over Monaco to the Grimaldi family of Genoa, who became absolute rulers.

At various times from the fifteenth to the sixteenth century, Monaco was occupied or controlled by France or Spain. France seized control of Monaco in 1793 during the French revolution; but the Congress of Vienna restored control to the Grimaldi family in 1814. In 1866 Prince Charles III founded Monte Carlo, which became a popular resort for the wealthy in the early 1900's.

The princes of Monaco ruled as absolute monarchs until 1911, when Prince Albert I approved a new constitution. Palace revolts and violence marked Monaco's early history. Prince Jean II was murdered by his brother Lucien, who was later murdered by a relative. Prince Honoré I was drowned during a revolt.

Later rulers included Prince Albert, who was known as the Scientist Prince because of his marine research; he founded the famous Oceanographic Museum. Prince Louis II ruled from 1922 to 1949, except for the German occupation during World War II. His grandson Prince Rainier III succeeded him.

GOVERNMENT: The prince represents Monaco in international affairs, such as the signing of treaties and agreements with other countries. Under the terms of a treaty with France in 1918, if Monaco's royal family has no male heirs, Monaco will come under French rule.

A minister of state, under the authority of the prince, heads the government. The minister is a Frenchman nominated by the French government. Three councilors who are responsible for finance, police and internal affairs, and public works assist the minister of state. The 18-member National Council is the legislative body of the principality. Monégasques elect National Council members to five-year terms.

ECONOMY: Tourism is the principal source of income--more than 600, 000 tourists visit each year. One company (the Société des Bains de Mer) owns the casino and most of the hotels, clubs, beaches, and other places of entertainment. Monaco's postage stamps are another important source of income.

Many foreign companies have their headquarters in Monaco because of the low taxes. In 1963, under pressure from France, Monaco imposed a tax on business profits for the first time. Factories in Fontvieille produce beer, candy, and chemicals.

EDUCATION: Monaco's primary schools are run by the church. The principality also has a high school and a music academy.

THE NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND)

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Netherlands, situated in western Europe across the North Sea from England, has land borders with Germany and Belgium and covers an area about the size of Vermont and Massachusetts combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The land is very low and flat, half of it below sea level. It is criss-crossed by three large rivers (the Rhine, Meuse, and Scheldt) and numerous canals. Many old windmills still dot the Dutch landscape, but water-pumping work now is done largely by modern stations using electric power. To create new farmland, the Dutch have been draining the historic Zuider Zee, a large shallow inlet of the North Sea. The climate is temperate, with mild winters and cool summers similar to those of England.

OVERSEAS TERRITORIES: There are two Dutch territories in the Western Hemisphere. Surinam, also known as Dutch Guiana, lies on the northeast coast of South America. The Netherlands Antilles is comprised of several islands in the Caribbean, notably Aruba and Curaçao. Each territory has full self-government in internal affairs.

CITIES: The official capital is Amsterdam, largest city in the country (population 874, 000). Amsterdam is a large Dutch port with a famous diamond-cutting industry and an equally famous concert orchestra. The actual seat of the Dutch government and residence of the diplomatic corps is The Hague, further south. Also at The Hague is the International Court of Justice, housed in the Peace Palace financed by the late Andrew Carnegie. Rotterdam, located along the mouth of the Rhine, is a key port of entry for Europe and handles more tonnage than any other ocean port in the world. Its population is over 731, 000. The heart of Rotterdam was destroyed by Nazi air raids but has now been rebuilt along modern lines.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The over 12. 5 million population of The Netherlands, the most thickly populated country in Europe, is growing so rapidly that the government helps its citizens to emigrate (mainly to Canada and Australia). Because job opportunities are scarce, few Dutch married women work outside their homes.

In religion, about 40 percent of the Dutch are Protestant and a similar proportion are Roman Catholic. The rest are largely nondenominational. Most Catholics live in the southern provinces of Brabant and Limburg. The royal family is Protestant.

The Dutch language is a Germanic tongue. Educated people speak standard Dutch, but various dialects are spoken in the countryside. The study of English, French, and German is compulsory in all secondary schools.

GOVERNMENT: The Netherlands is a constitutional monarchy with democratic parliamentary government. The Dutch sovereigns since 1890 have been queens.

ECONOMY: Industry, agriculture, and trade are important sources of national income. Over 40 percent of all Dutch working people are employed in industry, processing imported raw materials or foodstuffs raised at home. Cereals, potatoes, sugar beets, and other crops are raised. Leading industrial products include ships and barges, sheet-metal products, electrical and radio equipment, and chemical fertilizers. About 12 percent of the nation's workers are engaged in farming. The small, carefully tended Dutch farms produce more per acre than U. S. farms. Dutch cheeses, fine livestock, and tulip bulbs are marketed throughout the Western world.

EDUCATION: Schooling is compulsory from ages 6 to 15. There is almost no illiteracy. Denominational schools outnumber public schools and receive state subsidies. The oldest of the country's 11 universities is at Leyden, founded in 1575 by William the Silent, the national hero who led Holland's struggle for independence from Spain.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: April 30 -- birthday of the Queen.

FOOD: Dutch food is hearty, with plenty of meat or fish, potatoes, and vegetables. Beer is the national light beverage; coffee is popular. Dinner usually is served before 7 p. m.

NORWAY

LOCATION: Situated in northwest Europe, Norway occupies the Atlantic side of the Scandinavian peninsula. It has a 1,000-mile frontier with Sweden and shorter boundaries in the far north with Finland and the Soviet Union. Nearly one-third of Norway is north of the Arctic Circle. The country occupies a continental area slightly larger than New Mexico.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Norway has a long indented coastline extending 2,125 miles from the Arctic Ocean to the North Sea. The landscape includes fjords, mountains, forests, valleys, plains, and wasteland. Only 4 percent of the country's land is suitable for farming. There are many small fishing villages and lumbering communities. The Gulf Stream keeps the climate generally temperate and harbors ice-free during the winter. In Oslo, temperatures are as low as 20 degrees in January and as high as 70 degrees in July.

CITIES: Oslo, the capital, has 483,000 people and is the country's chief port. It is a modern city in southern Norway with an island-studded harbor and pine-covered hills in the background. Oslo has one of the largest areas of any city in the world -- a 50-kilometer ski race is held there annually and cows graze on farms within the city limits. Bergen has a population of 117,000. An old seaport on the Atlantic coast with much medieval charm, it is an important shipbuilding center.

RELIGION: Most of the nearly 3.8 million Norwegians belong to the Evangelical Lutheran Church, the official state-supported church. Between 3 and 4 percent of the country's people belong to other Christian denominations or to the small Jewish community.

GOVERNMENT: Norway is a constitutional monarchy, with legislative power vested in a popularly elected parliament (Storting). Executive power is exercised through a cabinet headed by a premier, and cabinet ministers must retain the confidence of parliament to stay in office. In the September 1969 elections the nonsocialist coalition government emerged with a second four-year term in power.

ECONOMY: Underemployment is virtually nonexistent. Lumber and paper production, fishing, shipbuilding, and the mining of iron ore and pyrites are the backbone of Norway's economy. Modern electrochemical and electrometallurgical industries produce largely for export. Norway's merchant fleet ranks as the fourth largest in the world, and shipping services are an important source of foreign exchange earnings.

The Spitzbergen group of islands in the Arctic Ocean 360 miles north of Norway were recognized as Norwegian territory in 1920 by the League of Nations. A small number of Norwegians work there part of the year, mining bituminous coal. The Soviet Union has extraterritorial rights in certain areas where Russian mining enterprises are located.

EDUCATION: Schooling has been compulsory from 7 to 14 years of age since 1860. Under an educational reform law of 1959, most local school boards in Norway are extending their compulsory education to age 16 (for a total of nine years). The country's two universities are at Oslo and Bergen, with a university college of technology at Trondheim and an Agricultural College at Aas. There also are a number of vocational institutes and teachers colleges. Instruction is free at all levels.

FOOD: Fish and cheese are prominent in the Norwegian diet, and coffee is a popular beverage. Breakfast is on the hearty side. Dinner time is usually late afternoon or early evening.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: May 17 is celebrated as Constitution Day, marking the adoption of the national constitution by the Eidsvoll Assembly in 1814. The Assembly also elected a national king, but Sweden forced his abdication and made Norway subject to the Swedish king until 1906.

POLAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated in east-central Europe, Poland is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea and on the south by the Carpathian Mountains. In an east-west direction it is part of a continuous plain merging on the west with Germany and on the east with the Soviet Union, a geographic fact that has had tragic consequences for the Polish nation and that strongly influences its political outlook today.

The largest European country in the Soviet orbit, Poland now has an area of 120,359 square miles (including the western lands put under Polish administration in 1945 pending a final peace treaty with Germany).

CITIES: Over half of Poland's people now live in towns and cities. Warsaw, the capital, on the Vistula River, is the country's largest city with over 1.2 million people. Lodz, second largest, has about 745,000 inhabitants. The cities of Krakow, Wroclaw (Breslau), and Poznan have populations exceeding 400,000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Poland's nearly 32 million people are ethnically Polish. The Ukrainian, Byelorussian, German, and Jewish minorities -- which comprised one-third of the country's population in the 1930's -- were drastically reduced as a result of World War II and now constitute less than 2 percent of the population.

The Polish people are traditionally Roman Catholic in religion, while the ruling Communist party is atheistic in outlook. The political crisis of October 1956 led to an accommodation between the government and the Polish Catholic Church. In recent years, however, ideological attacks against the Church have increased; and religious instruction in the schools, conceded by the government in 1956, has been stopped.

The Polish language has been a proud symbol of national self-consciousness during long years of foreign rule. There is an important national literary tradition, and Adam Mickiewicz (1798-1855) is honored not only as the greatest Polish poet but as the standard-bearer who united the cause of Polish nationalism with that of humanity's struggle for freedom.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: A powerful and independent kingdom in medieval times, Poland later fell under the domination of its larger neighbors. Toward the end of the eighteenth century it was partitioned by Prussia, Russia, and Austria and remained under foreign rule until 1919. After 20 years as an independent republic, it fell before Hitler's invading armies with Stalin sharing in the territorial spoils. Following "liberation" by Soviet troops in 1944, Poland again emerged as an independent state -- this time under a Communist-controlled regime and without the real substance of independence from Soviet domination. July 1969 marked the twenty-fifth anniversary of Communist rule.

GOVERNMENT: The Communist party which controls Poland's government is called the Polish United Workers Party. Almost all members of the Council of Ministers, Poland's cabinet, are important Party members. The elected parliament (Sejm) is nominally the supreme organ of state authority, and the Council of State serves as a collective presidency.

Government policies are directed in fact by the Politburo of the Polish Communist party, headed by Wladyslaw Gomulka. Gomulka took over in October 1956, four months after the workers' riots in Poznan. Poland's Communist party is supported in election campaigns by two other minor parties and various mass organizations.

Since Gomulka stood up to the Soviet threat in October 1956, direct Soviet intervention in Polish internal affairs has subsided. While retaining traditional Communist economic and social goals, the Gomulka regime has liberalized some aspects of Polish life and has emphasized Poland's desire for equality in its complex relations with the Soviet Union.

ECONOMY: Following Soviet practice, the Polish Communist regime in postwar years nationalized nearly all industry, transport, finance, and trade and instituted a system of central economic planning. In 1950 it launched a program for rapid expansion of heavy industry along with a drive for collectivization of agriculture. Six years later the country had a larger industrial base but was in a difficult economic situation. The Poznan riots and the bloodless revolution of October 1956 spurred extensive revisions in national policies -- investments were reduced, controls decentralized, most collective farms abandoned, and greater efforts made to improve the people's standard of living. In 1966, 35.5 percent of the population was engaged in agriculture. About 85 percent of the farms are privately owned.

Poland now is a moderately industrialized country with substantial iron and steel, engineering, and chemical production. The rate of industrial growth is estimated at 8 percent annually in recent years. There are rich coal deposits in Poland, but other major raw materials, such as iron ore and petroleum, must be imported. Large imports of wheat also have been necessary in postwar years to feed the growing industrial population. Exports have lagged behind imports, leaving the country with a large foreign debt. The Soviet Union, Poland's most important trading partner, granted economic concessions and long-term trade credits to the Gomulka administration in 1956. Poland has also received substantial assistance from the U. S. since 1957, largely credits for surplus agricultural commodities. About 60 percent of Poland's trade by value is now with Communist countries and 40 percent with the West.

EDUCATION: The Polish school system is maintained and controlled by the state. Since 1948 seven years of elementary education have become almost universal, and vocational training has been greatly expanded as part of the state industrialization program. The elementary-secondary system is being reformed on the basis of legislation enacted in 1961. The reform gives priority to extending compulsory basic education by one year, from a seven-year program to an eight-year program. The cost is being met in part by voluntary public contributions.

Poland has eight state universities and numerous specialized schools of higher learning. Under the Gomulka administration, the universities have been permitted some administrative autonomy, but since 1961 many non-Communist professors have been forced to retire, and compulsory instruction in Marxism and the Russian language has been reintroduced. One non-state institution of higher learning remains: the Roman Catholic University of Lublin, the only free private university in the entire Communist world.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: Poland's official national holiday is National Liberation Day, July 22. It commemorates a Polish Communist manifesto issued in Lublin in 1944 with the backing of Soviet troops. This manifesto in effect rejected the authority of the Polish government-in-exile (in London) and proclaimed the Communist-controlled Polish Committee of National Liberation to be the governing authority in Poland.

POLISH PEOPLE IN AMERICA: Many talented individuals of Polish background have made their homes in America and have won acclaim here and abroad. The well-known pianist Artur Rubinstein is of Polish origin; so was the famous harpsichordist Wanda Landowski (who died in 1959). Ignace Paderewski, one of modern Poland's most famous pianists and the first premier of Poland after World War I, is buried in Arlington National Cemetery. And there are, of course, many monuments throughout our country to the Polish fighters in the American Revolution -- Casimir Pulaski and Tadeuz Kosciuszko. About 6 million Americans are of Polish descent.

PORTUGAL

LOCATION: A country of southwest Europe, Portugal lies on the edge of the Iberian peninsula, between the Atlantic Ocean and Spain. The Azore Islands, far out in the Atlantic, also are governed as part of Portugal.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Portugal is a small rectangular-shaped country about the size of Indiana. A rugged land with fine harbors on the coast, the country is crossed by green and fertile valleys of rivers which rise in Spain and flow down to the Atlantic. The climate generally is mild and temperate, damp along the north seaboard. Temperatures in Lisbon range from 46 degrees in January to 76 degrees in August.

OVERSEAS TERRITORIES: Portugal's two largest overseas possessions are Angola (Portuguese West Africa) and Mozambique (Portuguese East Africa).

CITIES: Lisbon, the capital, is situated on hills overlooking the Tagus River near the Atlantic coast. Portugal's largest city, it has over 835,000 population. Most of Lisbon is quite modern, with spacious squares, boulevards, pastel-colored buildings, much traffic. The longest suspension bridge in Europe -- the Salazar Bridge -- spans the Tagus River in Lisbon. Some old narrow streets and ancient monuments still remain. The Tower of Belem, a sixteenth-century fortress, is a notable example of Portugal's unusual Manueline style of architecture, a blend of Moorish and Gothic, incorporating motifs of the sea.

Oporto, a bustling seaport in the north near the mouth of the Douro River, is the country's second city, with about 319,000 people. Port wine derives its name from this city, which is the center of Portugal's wine trade.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The national language is Portuguese, spoken by all citizens. Nearly all the country's 9.4 million people are Roman Catholics. There are also a few Protestants and Jews.

GOVERNMENT: Portugal is a republic now under the political leadership of Marcela Caetano. Antonio de Oliveira Salazar, premier since 1932, was forced to resign in September 1968 because of a brain hemorrhage. The legislature consists of the Corporative Chamber and the National Assembly. Associations of employers, workers, and various professions are represented in the Chamber, which discusses social and economic problems and acts in an advisory capacity to the Assembly. Portugal has one organized political party, the National Union.

ECONOMY: Half of the Portuguese are engaged in agriculture, and farming is done mainly by manual labor. The Portuguese have a long tradition of seafaring, and fishing is still an important occupation. Most of Portugal's industry is connected with the preparation of export products, mainly cork, wine, textiles, and sardines. Advances have been made recently in the development of hydroelectric power and construction of factories for nitrates and fertilizers. Per capita income averages between $200 and $300 per year.

EDUCATION: Primary education is compulsory by law, but facilities remain inadequate despite construction of many new schools in recent years. There is considerable rural illiteracy. Of the five universities, the University of Coimbra, founded in the thirteenth century, is one of the oldest in Europe.

FOOD: Diet staples in Portugal are fish, vegetables, and fruit. One of the national specialties is dried codfish (bacalhau), usually prepared by boiling, served with boiled potatoes and greens.

HOLIDAYS: June 10, the Day of Portugal, honors Portugal's national poet, Luis de Camoens (Camões), who died in 1580. Camoens' famous epic poem The Lusiads celebrates historic achievements of the Portuguese nation, particularly the exploits of Vasco da Gama and other heroes who pioneered ocean routes around the world and lifted the curtain on new lands and peoples from Africa to Japan and Brazil.

Other national holidays are celebrated on October 5, Republic Day, and December 1, Independence Day. Numerous holy days and festivals of the Catholic Church are also observed.

ROMANIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Communist-ruled state in southeast Europe, Romania has 152 miles of coastline along the Black Sea and extends inland halfway across the Balkan Peninsula. On the north and northeast it is bordered by the Soviet Union for 825 miles; on the south it is bounded by Bulgaria, on the west by Yugoslavia and Hungary. Romania covers an area of roughly 91,700 square miles, somewhat larger than New York and Pennsylvania combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Carpathian Mountains curve through the center of Romania. Their rugged southern limb is known as the Transylvanian Alps. East and south of the mountains lie the fertile lowlands of Moldavia and Wallachia, which extend from the Prut River on the Soviet border to the Danube River on the Bulgarian border. On the western side of the mountains is the Transylvanian Basin, a region of hills and valleys giving way to the Hungarian Plain. The Dobrudja area, along the coast, is an eroded plateau which deflects the lower Danube northward to Galati, where the river bends and flows to its swampy delta and the Black Sea.

Inland Romania has a continental climate with long, cold winters and little spring. Summers are hot and humid in the lowlands, milder in the Transylvanian highlands. Average temperatures at Bucharest -- in the Wallachian plain -- range from a daily low of 20 degrees in January to a daily high of 85 degrees in July.

CITIES: Bucharest -- known as the Paris of the Balkans -- is the nation's capital and largest city (population 1.5 million, including outlying districts). It is the site of international music competitions in which prizes are awarded in the name of the violinist and composer George Enescu (1881-1955), well-known to Americans for his "Romanian Rhapsodies" and through his work and concerts in this country. In addition to governmental and cultural activities, Bucharest is a major center of manufacturing and industry. The second largest city is Cluj (population 168,000), an urban center in the Transylvanian region. Romania has seven other cities with populations over 100,000, but the majority of the country's people are rural dwellers.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Romanians comprise nearly 86 percent of the country's 19.5 million population, and there are several minorities. The principal minority groups are the Hungarians (about 1.5 million) and the Germans (about 400,000), both concentrated in Transylvania. The Jewish minority has been sharply reduced in recent years as a result of emigration to Israel. Smaller minorities include Yugoslavs, Ukrainians, Greeks, and gypsies.

The main religious influence in Romanian history has been Byzantine, and today most Romanians belong to the Romanian Orthodox Church, one of the autonomous Eastern Orthodox churches. The Uniate (Greek Catholic) Church, with over a million Romanian followers in Transylvania, was forcibly merged with the Romanian Orthodox Church in 1948. About 1.5 million persons adhere to the Roman Catholic Church, which has been under Communist pressure and no longer has official ties with the Vatican. There are also Calvinists and Unitarians (among the Hungarian minority) and Lutherans (among the German minority).

The Romanians claim to be descendants of Roman settlers in the ancient province of Dacia. The Romans conquered Dacia in the time of Trajan and established agricultural communities along with frontier posts. Roman rule was withdrawn nearly 200 years later, in the third century A.D., leaving a Dacian-Roman people, speaking the Latin language. Subsequently the territory of present-day Romania was overrun by many other peoples, including Goths, Huns, Slavs, Magyars, and Turks. Each successive invasion left its mark, and today the Romanian language is the chief reminder of Roman rule along the lower Danube. Modern Romanian, predominantly Latin in vocabulary and structure, is written in the Latin alphabet. Though it contains many Slavonic and other loan words, it belongs to the Romance group of languages (along with French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese). French is the foreign language most widely used by Romanians. Recently, the government officially changed the English spelling of the country's name from the slightly slavic Rumania to the emphatically Latinized Romania.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The modern Romanian state dates from the second half of the nineteenth century, when the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia became independent of Turkish control and were united under a single ruler. Additional territory was gained as a result of World War I, when Romania was on the Allied side. Parts of this were lost to the U.S.S.R. as a result of World War II (namely, Bessarabia and northern Bukovina), but under the peace treaty of 1947 Romania has retained all of the important region of Transylvania (long claimed by Hungary).

During World War II Romania sided with the Axis powers. It was invaded by the Soviet army in 1944, and the last Soviet occupation forces withdrew in 1958. A Communist-dominated coalition government was set up in Bucharest on March 6, 1945, through the direct intervention of Soviet Deputy Foreign Minister Vishinsky. Officially, the country remained a kingdom until December 30, 1947, when King Michael was forced to abdicate and the Romanian People's Republic was proclaimed. The republic has had several Soviet-type constitutions. The present one, adopted in 1965, calls Romania a socialist republic.

GOVERNMENT: The parliament of the Romanian Socialist Republic, the Grand National Assembly, meets a few days each year to approve Communist-drafted legislation and to appoint Communist-nominated officials. When the Assembly is not in session, its functions are exercised by the Council of State. The Council president serves as Romania's chief of state. The highest administrative organ of government, the Council of Ministers, is headed by a premier.

Real power lies in the leadership of the Romanian Communist Party, the only party permitted in the country. The leading role of the Party in the nation's political, economic, and social life has been written into the 1965 constitution. After years of complete subservience to the Soviet Union, the Romanian leadership recently has been asserting its independence and seeking closer relations with the West. Romania refused to take part in the August 1968 invasion of Czechoslovakia and was the only Warsaw Pact power to decline to break relations with Israel after the six-day war in 1967. President Nixon paid an official visit to the country in August 1969, the first time an American president has ever visited a Communist capital.

ECONOMY: Romania's economy is under state control and is centrally planned. All industries, banks, and transport facilities have been nationalized; and 96.4 percent of the agricultural land has been brought into state or collective farms. Communist economic policy since 1950 has stressed industrial development, and industry now contributes over half the national income. Over two-thirds of the country's working people, however, are still engaged in stock raising and farming, the main crops being wheat and corn.

Romania is the second largest petroleum producer in Europe (after the Soviet Union). It also has extensive reserves of natural gas and metallic ores. The Communist regime has given priority to development projects in machine building, steel production, chemicals, and electric power.

Although Romania is a member of the Soviet bloc economic organization (Council for Mutual Economic Aid), its leaders have been unwilling to modify their industrialization program to meet the needs of other Communist countries for more Romanian oil products, timber, and foodstuffs. Romania has been increasing its trade with Western countries since 1960, primarily to acquire machinery, equipment, and installations needed to carry out industrial plans.

EDUCATION: All education is free and compulsory for 10 years. All educational institutions in Romania are controlled by the state. Higher education includes a variety of technical and professional institutes, as well as the classical universities at Bucharest, Iasi, and Cluj. The educational program at all levels is coordinated with the practical needs of the national economy, and compulsory study of Russian in the schools has been abandoned.

FOOD: Romania's greatest food specialty is a cornmeal dish called mamaliga, often served in place of bread. Another national dish is ghivetch, a casserole of several vegetables, sometimes combined with meat or fish. Charcoal-broiled meat is highly favored, and piquant side dishes are customary (e.g., sauerkraut, hot red peppers, pickled cucumbers).

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 23, Liberation Day, marks the date in 1944 when a palace coup overthrew the wartime regime of General Antonescu and King Michael proclaimed that Romania would no longer fight against the Allies. One of the decisive events of the war, this action opened all southeastern Europe to the Soviet Army.

SAN MARINO

LOCATION AND SIZE: San Marino covers an area of only 24 square miles. It lies on the eastern slopes of the Apennine Mountains in northern Italy near the Adriatic Sea and is completely surrounded by Italian territory.

CITIES: The capital is San Marino, a walled city of 4,000 persons, located atop Mount Titano.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The country's 19,000 people speak Italian and are closely related to the people of northern Italy.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: San Marino was founded in the A. D. 300's by Marinus, a Christian stonemason from Dalmatia, who sought refuge from persecution by the Roman emperor Diocletian. The country has many fine historical buildings, including a church built in the fourteenth century. The present constitution was drawn up in the 1600's.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: In 1945 San Marino elected a Communist government. In September and October 1957 two rival governments--Communist and anti-Communist--were vying for control. The Communists were defeated in the 1959 and 1964 elections. Women gained the right to vote in 1960.

Under San Marino law, anyone born there remains a citizen and voter for life. In the 1964 election, 800 Americans of San Marino origin voted, mostly by absentee ballot. The Communists and their allies enacted a law in 1966 that forced the Christian Democrats to resort to an airlift to get the American vote in the September 1969 elections. The law forbade absentee voting from outside Europe.

A 1967 U. S. Supreme Court ruling made it possible for Americans to vote there without fear of losing their citizenship. A 5-4 decision said Congress did not have authority to pass legislation to deprive an American of his citizenship against his will.

In the 1969 elections a total of 16,720 persons--7,419 living abroad--were eligible to vote. About 400 Americans were flown in; the Communists brought an equal number of voters from various European countries.

GOVERNMENT: Two Captains-Regent, assisted by a 10-member Congress of State, govern San Marino. The legislature, a 60-member Grand and General Council, is elected by the people every five years. It elects the Captains-Regent, who serve six-month terms.

In the 1969 elections six parties, including the new, pro-Chinese Communist Marxist-Leninist party, entered candidates for seats in the Grand and General Council.

ECONOMY: San Marino's chief sources of income are the tourist trade, sale of postcards and postage stamps, and industry. About 2 million tourists visit the republic each year, and its stamps are popular with philatelists.

SPAIN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated in southwest Europe, Spain shares with Portugal the Iberian peninsula and stretches from the Pyrenees at the French border to Gibraltar. Spain is the second largest country of Western Europe, with an area equal to Arizona and Utah combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Spain is a high, arid plateau, divided by mountain ranges and cut by rivers which flow down to the various coasts. Natural geographic divisions have helped perpetuate regional differences in the customs and traditions of the people. Spain's northern coasts have a moderate climate with some rainfall at all seasons. Madrid, up on the central plateau, has a very dry climate with hot summers and cold winters. The southern coasts have hot, dry summers and mild winters.

CITIES: Madrid, Spain's capital and largest city, has a population of almost 2.6 million. A cosmopolitan city with growing industry, Madrid is the geographical center of the country and the hub of the railroad network. Next in size is Barcelona, population 1.8 million, a cosmopolitan industrial and commercial city in the northeast on the Mediterranean coast. It is the urban center of Catalonia province, whose people have a language and culture more akin to southern France than to the rest of Spain. Valencia is the seaport of the citrus fruit region along the Mediterranean; it is located in the historic area where Spain's national hero El Cid battled against the Moslem Moors. Further south in Andalusia province are ancient Granada, Cordoba, and Seville, where Moorish culture produced some of the most beautiful buildings in the world. Seville is the main port and manufacturing center of southern Spain.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Spain's population numbers over 33 million. Spanish is the main language, but three regional languages survive in the north--Catalan, Basque, and Galician (akin to Portuguese). Roman Catholicism is the state religion, and the country has only about 20,000 Protestants.

GOVERNMENT: Spain has been under the rule of General Francisco Franco since the civil war ended in 1939. As chief of state (caudillo), General Franco appoints members of the cabinet and retains an absolute veto over laws prepared by the Cortes, the legislative body which officially represents all sectors of national life. The Law of Succession of 1947 declares Spain to be a kingdom with Franco as life-long chief of state and provides for designating a king or regent as his successor. The Falange, headed by General Franco, is the only political organization permitted in the country.

In July 1969 Franco named young Prince Juan Carlos de Borbon y Borbon as his successor and heir to the vacant throne of Spain. All real power, however, remains in the hands of Franco.

ECONOMY: Spain has a diversified economy. Industry has expanded rapidly since 1953, but agriculture and mining still are the basic economic activities and provide most of the country's exports. Per capita income reached $612 in 1967.

Wheat is a major domestic crop, and Spain is famous for exports of oranges, olives, and sherry wine. Although 40 percent of Spain's working people are engaged in agriculture, farm production has lagged behind the rise in national population. The country's important mineral resources include iron ore, coal, lead, mercury, copper, and potash salts.

Textiles, chemicals, and iron and steel production are among the principal industries. Considerable hydroelectric power also is being developed. The tourist trade brings in about $500 million a year; it is Spain's largest single source of foreign currency.

From 1954 to 1962, over $1 billion of U.S. economic aid was provided to construct air and naval bases in Spain. When this aid ended in mid-1962, the country had large reserves of gold and foreign currency. Spain seeks either formal association or a preferential trade arrangement with the European Common Market.

EDUCATION: A law adopted in 1964 extended compulsory schooling from six to eight years. This law followed implementation of the first national school construction plan, which provided new classrooms for a million primary age children from 1957 to 1963. Most primary school pupils now attend state schools free of charge. At the secondary level, church and private schools predominate. A national program to reduce illiteracy was launched in 1963, when the number of illiterates over 10 years of age was placed at 1.8 million. Spain has 13 universities, the largest of which is in Madrid.

FOOD: Spanish food, though hearty, is not hot or highly spiced. The evening dinner hour tends to be much later than in the U. S. --10 or 11 p. m. Wine is the customary drink, and beer is popular as an apértif. There are many distinctive regional dishes, including Valencian paella (rice with meat and seafood); Castilian cocido (chickpea stew with meat and greens); and Andalusian gazpacho (a cold soup made of tomatoes, cucumbers, paprika, olive oil, and other ingredients).

HOLIDAYS: The principal national holiday is July 18, Spanish Labor Day (sometimes referred to as General Franco's Day). There are many Catholic holy days and festivals.

DEFENSE NOTE: The United States is linked with Spain in a joint defense agreement signed in 1953 and extended in 1963. Spain is not a member of NATO.

SWEDEN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Sweden occupies the eastern and largest part of the Scandinavian peninsula in northern Europe. The country is bordered by Norway, Finland, the Gulf of Bothnia, and the Baltic Sea. Covering an area slightly larger than California, Sweden has a population of over 7.8 million people, who are concentrated mostly in the southern part of the country.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Swedish landscape is characterized by rolling plains and sandy beaches in the south, high mountains and glaciers in the north. In between are vast forests broken by rivers and thousands of lakes. Since the Gulf Stream is nearby, Sweden's climate is generally temperate. However, Lapland, north of the Arctic Circle, has long, severe winters and only two months of summer weather.

CITIES: Stockholm, the capital, has a population of over 1.2 million, including suburban residents. Lying on Sweden's east coast near the junction of the Baltic Sea and the Gulf of Bothnia, Stockholm has attractive modern and baroque buildings. It is the seat of many Swedish learned societies and royal academies. Göteborg, on the west coast, is Sweden's busiest port (population 443,000). It is connected with Stockholm by the 360-mile Göta Canal, which uses many lakes. Over half of Sweden's people live in urban areas.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION: The national language is Swedish, an old North Germanic tongue related to Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. English is spoken and understood by many Swedes, particularly city dwellers. Sweden is largely a Protestant country, with the Lutheran Church predominating. By law, the king and members of the cabinet must be of the Lutheran faith.

GOVERNMENT: A constitutional monarchy, Sweden has a democratic, parliamentary system of government. The Bernadotte dynasty has reigned since 1810, when one of Napoleon's marshals was elected heir to the throne of Sweden. The country's prime minister, chosen from the elected parliament (Riksdag), serves as chief executive. In 1969--after 23 years in office--Tage Erlander retired as Sweden's prime minister. He was succeeded by Olof Palme. Sweden is the only Western European nation to extend diplomatic recognition to North Vietnam. The 300-odd U.S. military deserters living in Sweden receive food, clothing, rent, and travel allowances, plus instruction in the Swedish language.

ECONOMY: Sweden is an industrialized country with about the highest living standard in Europe. Its basic industrial resources are forests, iron ore, and water power. Paper and wood products are the largest industries; machinery, shipbuilding, automobile production, and high-grade steel are leading industrial specialties. About one-fourth of Swedish production is exported, and the traditional surplus of imports is paid for by earnings from shipping and other services. Coal and oil have to be imported. Only 15 percent of Sweden's working people earn their living in agriculture; but farm production meets most national requirements.

About 14 percent of the national income is redistributed through the social welfare system, which includes compulsory health insurance.

EDUCATION: Compulsory schooling dates from 1842, and virtually the entire Swedish population is literate. The public school system, based on "dual" or "parallel" schools, now is being reformed. A comprehensive nine-year school has been introduced, spanning the period of compulsory education. The nine-year school aims to provide all children of a given area with a common elementary program and opportunities for alternative courses of study in grades 7-9. Plans also are being made to reform secondary education, so that more students may have opportunities for advanced training. There are state universities at Umea, Stockholm, Göteborg, Lund, and Uppsala (founded 1477).

FOOD: Meal hours in Sweden are similar to the United States. Food is on the hearty side, with plenty of meat, fish, and cheese. Smörgasbord consists of a wide array of dishes, usually served as the appetizer course at dinner.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 11, birthday of the King.

SWITZERLAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked nation in central Europe, Switzerland is bounded by France on the west, Germany on the north, and Austria and Italy on the east and south. Nearly 6 million people live in Switzerland, although the country is at most 226 miles long and 137 miles wide. It has a total area of 15,943 square miles, about one-third that of New York State.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Alps cover three-fifths of Switzerland, making it the most mountainous country in Europe. Both the Rhine and Rhone Rivers originate in Swiss territory, but the country's numerous lakes are more useful as waterways and also help protect the land from river floods. About 53 percent of the land is used for farm, vineyard, and pasture; 24 percent is forested; the rest is unproductive. The weather generally is moderate without extremes of hot or cold, but climatic conditions vary with altitude.

CITIES: Bern, the capital (population 166,800), is one of the best-preserved medieval cities in Europe. Built on cliffs overlooking a loop of the Aare River, it is famous for its Bear Pit (where bears have been kept as city mascots since 1480) and for its clock tower, which marks each hour with a puppet show. Zurich, the largest city (population 432,500), is the industrial, commercial, and cultural heart of the country. Basel, Geneva, and Lausanne are the other principal cities.

LANGUAGE AND RELIGION: Because of long-standing linguistic differences among the Swiss people, the country does not have a national language. French, German, and Italian are recognized by the government as official languages, and there is a minor tongue called Romansh. English is widely understood in the cities. About 53 percent of the Swiss are Protestant, 45 percent are Roman Catholic, and a few are Jewish.

GOVERNMENT: Switzerland is a federal republic, organized as a confederation of 22 cantons (3 of them subdivided). National authority is vested in a two-chamber parliament, the Federal Assembly. Executive power is exercised by the Federal Council, composed of seven members chosen by the Assembly. The president is selected from the Federal Council and serves for one year; he has no special power other than to preside over the Council. Women do not have the right to vote in federal elections, but in three cantons they have the vote in cantonal elections.

ECONOMY: The Swiss, who rank among the most skilled craftsmen in Europe, are particularly famous for their watches and other precision instruments. They use their limited dairy surpluses to make cheeses and chocolates, which find ready markets abroad. From domestic waterpower and imported raw materials, they have developed modern industries that turn out high-quality chemicals, machinery, turbines, machine tools, and other products. International banking, tourism, insurance, and transit traffic also play significant roles in the Swiss economy.

EDUCATION: Elementary education for eight or nine years has been compulsory and free since 1874. Primary responsibility for education rests with the individual cantons, though they receive some federal subsidies. There are seven cantonal universities -- the oldest at Basel (founded in 1460). The Federal Institute of Technology at Zurich is maintained by the confederation.

FOOD: Breakfast is continental style, consisting of bread or pastry, jam, hot coffee with milk, and, occasionally, cheese. Food specialties include cheese dishes (e.g., fondue and raclette) and various types of sausage. Most Swiss drink wine or beer with their meals.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 1, anniversary of the founding of the Swiss Confederation in 1291.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS: Switzerland still maintains its traditional neutrality. It has no military alliances and is not a member of the United Nations or NATO. It is, however, the host country for the headquarters of various specialized agencies of the UN. It is a member of the European Free Trade Association. It is also the home of the International Red Cross and has contributed to many other international humanitarian endeavors.

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Soviet Union stretches across the northern part of the Eurasian land mass, from the Baltic Sea on the west to the Pacific Ocean on the east. Territorially, it is the largest country in the world, occupying one-sixth of the land surface of the globe. Its total area of some 8.5 million square miles is over two times the size of the United States.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of the Soviet land is a vast rolling plain, relieved occasionally by large rivers and low mountains. Several major zones run across the country from east to west: the frozen marshes of the Arctic; the more temperate pine-forest belt; the fertile steppes (or prairies) to the south, giving way to the sandy deserts of Central Asia. Along the southern rim of the country, the landscape is more varied, particularly in the rugged Caucasus between the Caspian and the Black Seas and in the great mountain system bordering Afghanistan, Chinese Sinkiang, and Mongolia.

Variations in climate range from polar to temperate to subtropical. The northern and central region is characterized by long, cold winters and short summers. Moscow has an average daily low temperature of 5 degrees in January and an average daily high of 71 degrees in July, a climate similar to that of Minneapolis. Further south, the weather is more moderate. The southern coast of the Crimea has a Mediterranean-type climate.

CITIES: During recent decades there has been a great shift in population from rural to city areas, an accompaniment of rapid industrialization. About 48 percent of all Soviet citizens now live in urban areas, placing the U.S.S.R. among the more highly urbanized nations of the globe.

Moscow, the Soviet capital, is a sprawling metropolis of 6.5 million, including suburbs. Major points of interest are the historic Kremlin, the artistically designed subway, and the new campus of Moscow University, whose skyscrapers tower above the generally low city skyline.

Leningrad, the second largest Soviet city (population 3.5 million), was founded originally by Peter the Great and was called St. Petersburg before the Bolshevik revolution. It served as Russia's capital from 1713 to 1918 and has many famous palaces and museums.

Kiev, the Ukrainian capital and the third largest Soviet city (population of more than 1 million), is famous for its 900-year-old St. Sophia Cathedral and its equally ancient Pechersk Monastery.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population of the U.S.S.R. in 1968 was estimated at 236.7 million. The Russians comprise about 54 percent of the population, while the three eastern Slav groups (Russians, Ukrainians, and Byelorussians) together account for around 75 percent of the total. The rest of the population is composed of diverse ethnic groups, including several Asian peoples related to Persians, Turks, and Mongols.

The multinational character of the population is reflected in the governmental structure of the Soviet Union. Fourteen of the national minorities are organized as Soviet Socialist Republics (e.g., the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Georgia, Uzbekistan, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania). The largest territorial unit, the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (R.S.F.S.R.), is the homeland of many small ethnic groups as well as of Russians.

Virtually every ethnic minority in the Soviet Union has its own language, but the Russian language now is widely used in non-Russian areas. In the schools of the non-Russian republics, the study of Russian language and literature is required in addition to the native tongue. English is taught extensively as a foreign language.

The ruling Communist Party is atheist in ideology and still conducts much antireligious propaganda. The early efforts of the Soviet government to destroy the churches, however, have given way to limited toleration of religious activities; and a number of churches are now open to worship. The most prominent religion is the traditional Russian Orthodox Church. There are also small but intensely devout Protestant groups (e.g., Baptists in Moscow, Lutherans in the Estonian and Latvian S.S.R.'s) and some Jews. Many inhabitants of the Central Asian republics and of Azerbaijan S.S.R. are Moslems.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The Communist Party of the U.S.S.R. (originally known as the Bolshevik wing of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party) derives its official ideology from Karl Marx and V. I. Lenin. Lenin led the Bolsheviks to political victory in 1917 and headed the new Soviet government until his death in 1924. Under his leadership that government nationalized by decree all important means of production, disbanded the Constituent Assembly that had emerged from the revolution of February 1917, and suppressed all opposition parties.

In the intense intra-Party struggle that followed Lenin's death, Joseph Stalin, the Party's general secretary, triumphed over Leon Trotsky and other major opponents. Stalin began a program of rapid industrialization in 1928, imposed a collectivization program on the peasants in the early 1930's, and conducted drastic purges from 1936 to 1938. He formally assumed the position of Soviet premier during World War II and retained single-handed control until his death in March 1953.

Since Stalin's death, his successors to the dictatorship have been grappling with many inherited problems, both domestic and foreign, while struggling among themselves for top leadership. In 1964, Nikita Khrushchev, the dominant figure in the post-Stalin regime, was suddenly removed from power by his former associates. Leonid Brezhnev became general secretary of the Communist Party. Alexei Kosygin became chairman of the All-Union Council of Ministers. On the ideological front, the twenty-second Congress of the Communist Party in October 1961 adopted a new Party program, replacing the one drawn up by Lenin in 1919.

Kosygin visited the U. S. to attend a UN meeting on the Israeli-Arab crisis in June 1967 and, during that time, also met with President Johnson in Glassboro, N. J. Stalin's only daughter defected from the Soviet Union in April 1967 and is now living in the U. S. Anatoly Kuznetsov, a liberal writer, defected in August 1969.

GOVERNMENT: The Soviet state is a one-party dictatorship with outward forms of representative government. Under the 1936 constitution, the highest organ of state power is the Supreme Soviet, an elected two-chamber legislative organ, nominally of great importance. In practice, the Supreme Soviet meets only a few days twice a year to approve unanimously the legislation proposed by the Central Committee of the Communist Party. The chairman of the presidium of the Supreme Soviet serves as titular head of state.

The All-Union Council of Ministers, the Soviet cabinet, plays a major role in the administration of public affairs. It tends to be a large body, with 60 or more members; and its chairman is, in effect, the Soviet premier.

Paralleling the government at all levels is the apparatus of the Communist Party, which holds a monopoly of political power and is the dominant force in Soviet society. Party direction and control is exercised through instructions from central Party organs to local Party units, which ensure that Party policy is carried out in governmental, economic, civic, and cultural bodies throughout the country. The important positions in governmental and nongovernmental agencies usually are held by Party members.

The highly centralized and all-pervasive network of Party direction and control, combined with state control of the entire economy and backed by systematic police control, gives Soviet society its distinctly totalitarian character. With Party and State ever at his side, the Soviet citizen finds it difficult to maintain an area of individuality in his life, although there are evidences that intellectuals and youth are beginning to assert their right to voice disagreement.

ECONOMY: The major Soviet economic aim has been to transform the basically agrarian country into a modern industrial state, second to none in economic and military power. Rapid progress has been made toward this aim since 1929, even though during World War II the attacking German troops left heavy casualties and widespread devastation in European Russia. Today Soviet industrial production is second only to that of the United States. This progress has been facilitated by rich natural resources and by comprehensive government controls that have enabled the regime to depress living standards in favor of a high rate of capital investment and to channel labor and materials into defense and heavy industry. From 1929 to 1952 only 10 percent of Soviet capital investment was allocated to consumer goods production, and even now such goods are far from abundant. Stalin's successors have been paying considerably more attention to the supply of consumer goods, as well as the improvement of urban housing, but there has been no basic change as yet in the established priority for heavy industry.

In recent years operational control of Soviet industry has been shifted closer to local levels, while in agriculture a reverse trend from collective farms to the more centralized state farms has been in evidence. Whatever the operational pattern, however, the system of centralized planning and controlled allocation of resources continues to be the basic economic determinant. Production is prodded by a combination of incentives and "labor discipline," including gradations in basic wage and salary rates called "Socialist competition" which provide increased pay for increased skill and training.

As a result, there are many different standards of living among Soviet citizens. A favored few (top political, managerial, scientific, artistic, and military personnel) live well by

U.S. standards, while most unskilled workers and collective farmers live at a near-subsistence level. In between is a growing middle layer of skilled workers, technicians, and professional people whose interest in better material conditions of life and extended education for their children has created many difficult issues for the post-Stalinist leadership.

EDUCATION: All Soviet education from kindergarten through the university level is provided by the state, and the system is designed primarily to serve the needs of the state rather than the individual. In 1958 Khrushchev initiated a major reform of the school system with emphasis on polytechnization. The reform aimed mainly to inculcate greater respect for physical labor among Soviet youth, prepare more of them for semispecialized jobs in the economy, and relieve pressures from secondary school graduates for admission to institutes of higher learning. Soviet authorities are still concerned with attaining these objectives but have tended to modify or abandon various institutional features of the 1958 reform.

Education is now compulsory from the first through the eighth grade for children between the ages of 7 and 15. Ordinarily, Soviet children attend an eight-year school or a ten-year school, both of which have primary and secondary courses of study. After their general schooling, students may enter vocational training programs designed to supply industry and agriculture with skilled or semiskilled labor, or they may enroll in semiprofessional programs designed to produce middle-grade specialists. Graduates of the ten-year schools of general education may apply for admission to institutions of higher education (universities and specialized institutes). Admission to higher education is based on performance in a competitive exam and on the student's political record.

FOOD: Dark, whole-grain breads, and potatoes are the staples of the Russian diet; and Russians are accustomed to eating a good quantity with their meals. Hot tea is the favorite beverage; vodka is the national alcoholic drink. Fruit soda or mineral water is consumed with meals. Food specialties include hearty soups -- such as borscht (beet soup) and shchi (cabbage soup) -- meat pastries, smoked fish, and broiled lamb on skewers (shashlik). Sour cream is used in soups, on pancakes, with cucumbers, and so forth. The daily diet of Soviet city dwellers often is dull and monotonous because the available variety of fruits, vegetables, and meats is limited. Food is simply prepared and not highly seasoned.

HOLIDAYS: The national holiday of the U.S.S.R. is celebrated on November 7 and 8, the anniversary of the establishment of the Soviet government in 1917. This 1917 event is called officially The Great October Socialist Revolution. It is better known as the Bolshevik (or Communist) seizure of power to Americans, who consider that the real revolution took place in February of that year when the last Russian Tsar abdicated under popular pressure. Another major Soviet holiday is May Day (May 1), also known as International Workers Day.

New Year's is a popular holiday in the U.S.S.R. It is the Communist substitute for Christmas. The Russian Orthodox, however, still celebrate Christmas and Easter as holy days (about two weeks later than the dates observed by Western churches).

CULTURAL NOTES: The century before the Bolshevik revolution was a "golden age" of Russian literature and music, characterized by such creative figures as the poet Pushkin; the novelists Gogol, Dostoevsky, and Tolstoy; the composers Glinka, Tchaikovsky, and Mussorgsky. In the Soviet period, the creative arts -- in the opinion of most foreign observers -- have suffered greatly from Stalin's purges of talented individuals and from the subordination of art to politics. Nonetheless, some Soviet writers (as Mikhail Sholokhov) and composers (as Dmitri Shostakovich) have won considerable renown, as well as the late, politically disfavored Boris Pasternak. In the performing arts of ballet and concert, standards have remained high, and state financial support has been generous. Most Russian citizens today take full advantage of all cultural opportunities made available by the state and seem proud both of their "Soviet culture" and their great cultural heritage from the past.

UNITED KINGDOM (BRITAIN)

LOCATION: An island country off the northwest coast of Europe, the United Kingdom lies between the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea. It includes Great Britain (England, Scotland, Wales), the northern part of Ireland, and various small islands.

SIZE AND POPULATION: The United Kingdom has a total land area of approximately 94,200 square miles, nearly the size of Oregon. England is somewhat smaller than Illinois; Scotland about the size of Maine; Wales the size of New Jersey; Northern Ireland a little larger than Connecticut. Of the total population of over 54.5 million, four-fifths live in England -- a land with 574 people per square mile, many more than the U.S. Scotland has only 5.2 million people, but most of them are concentrated in a small coastal and urban belt.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: No part of Britain is very far from the sea. The landscape varies from the highlands of northern Scotland and the English lake district to the green turf and rolling downs of southern England, from the mountains and valleys of Wales to the White Cliffs of Dover. All available farmland is intensively cultivated, but 80 percent of Britain's people live in towns or cities. The climate is mild, moist, and temperate, with regional variations. In London temperatures generally range from 35 degrees in winter to 70 degrees in midsummer.

COLONIES AND COMMONWEALTH: The United Kingdom still has colonial territories (dependencies) scattered over the world. In virtually all of them, local people have some voice in the territorial government.

The grouping known as the Commonwealth includes the U.K. and its colonial territories plus various independent nations that once were British colonies. The independent nations freely associated with Britain in the Commonwealth as of August 1969 are Australia, Barbados, Botswana, Canada, New Zealand, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, Ghana, Guyana, Cyprus, Malaysia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Lesotho, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, Uganda, Kenya, Malawi, Malta, Mauritius, Zambia, The Gambia, Singapore, and Swaziland. South Africa withdrew from the Commonwealth in 1961; Ireland withdrew in 1949.

CITIES: London, on the Thames River, is the country's capital and largest urban center, population 3.1 million. The London metropolitan area (including suburbs) contains over 8.1 million people. London is famous for many buildings symbolizing British history and tradition, e.g., Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London, the House of Parliament. Modern urban transportation facilities include both buses and subway (which the British call "the underground").

In England Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, and Leeds are large midland manufacturing cities. The shipping center of Liverpool is on England's west coast; the shipbuilding and coal port of Newcastle-upon-Tyne is on the east coast.

In Scotland the two key cities are Glasgow in the west, a shipbuilding center with over 1 million people, and Edinburgh in the east, the historic Scottish capital reminiscent of Sir Walter Scott.

In Wales the largest city is the coal-shipping port of Cardiff.

In Northern Ireland Belfast is the major city and capital.

LANGUAGE: English is the common tongue of all the people except a few inhabitants of rural Wales and Scotland. British words for everyday objects often differ from those used in the U.S. -- e.g., wireless is the British term for radio; flat, for apartment; biscuit, for cookie or cracker.

RELIGION: Most of the British are Protestants. The established churches are the Church of England (Protestant Episcopal) and the Church of Scotland (Presbyterian). There are many Methodists and a great variety of smaller denominations. The Catholic minority is sizable, numbered in millions. The Jewish community, estimated at 450,000, includes many who fled from the continent in the Nazi era.

Religion has been an explosive factor in Northern Ireland's politics. Strong antagonism exists between the Protestant majority and the Catholic minority (now approximately one-third of the population). The Protestant Unionist Party has retained control of the government, and the Catholics charge that they have been denied voting rights in local matters and claim economic discrimination as well. The Catholics began to organize mass demonstrations and marches to protest their treatment. Conflict between the two groups has steadily worsened, erupting at times into bloody street fighting.

GOVERNMENT: The U.K. is a constitutional monarchy with representative parliamentary government. Parliament consists of two houses: the powerful, popularly elected House of Commons and the aristocratic and weak House of Lords. The prime minister is the leader of the majority party in Commons, and he depends on Commons' support to stay in office. Britain's two major parties are the Conservative Party and the Labor Party.

ECONOMY: Trade is the keystone of Britain's highly industrialized economy. Half the country's food and virtually all raw materials (except coal and some iron ore) must come from abroad. To pay for vital imports, Britain relies mainly on the export of manufactured goods, but shipping services and tourism also contribute substantially to the country's earnings. In the postwar period important sections of Britain's economy have been nationalized, including electricity, coal, railroads, and steel.

Noteworthy progress has been made by the U.K. Atomic Energy Authority in developing nuclear power for commercial use. The world's first nuclear power station supplying electricity to a national network opened at Calder Hall in October 1956.

EDUCATION: The educational system combines some centralized direction with much local responsibility. Schooling is free and compulsory throughout the U.K. from 5 to 15 years of age, and there is almost no illiteracy.

England's famous independent boarding schools are relatively few in number; most children go to schools supported by local authorities. New comprehensive schools are being developed to provide all types of high school education under one roof.

There are many English universities besides venerable Oxford and Cambridge--e.g., the University of London, the University of Birmingham, the University of Leicester. The Scottish universities are St. Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Strathclyde, and Stirling. The University of Wales dates from 1893. Northern Ireland has Queens University of Belfast (1908) and the University of Ulster (1968). In all, Great Britain has about 40 universities; more than 20 new ones have been chartered since 1950.

FOOD: The British diet emphasizes plain solid food without sauces. Tea is the national beverage. Breakfast is substantial. The main meal or a large lunch is eaten at midday. A cup of tea or tea with sandwiches and cakes is customary in midafternoon. Supper or dinner tends to be around 7 or 8 p.m.

HOLIDAYS: The Queen's birthday is celebrated in June; it ranks as the national holiday for British embassies abroad but is not a legal holiday in Britain. December 26 is a legal holiday known as Boxing Day (in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland).

YUGOSLAVIA

LOCATION: Communist-ruled Yugoslavia occupies a strategic position on the Balkan peninsula of southeastern Europe. Lying along the middle Danube, the country is part of the main roadway from central Europe to the Mediterranean Sea and the Turkish Straits. On the west it is bordered by Italy and the Adriatic Sea; on the north, by Austria and Hungary; on the east, by Romania and Bulgaria; and on the south, by Albania and Greece.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The largest Balkan country, Yugoslavia has an area of nearly 99,000 square miles (roughly the size of Wyoming) and a population of over 20 million. In the northern part are fertile plains and rolling hills drained by the Danube and its tributaries. The remaining two-thirds of the country is mountainous, with many narrow and isolated valleys that make farming difficult and transportation facilities few. Along the rugged and picturesque Adriatic coast a Mediterranean climate prevails, but elsewhere the weather generally is that of the temperate zone.

CITIES: Situated on the Danube, Belgrade, the national capital and largest city, is the historic capital of Serbia, often besieged by the Turks. Zagreb, capital of Croatia, is the second largest city and reflects the Westernizing influence of historic association with Vienna and Budapest. Ljubljana, capital of Slovenia, is next door to Austria. Skopje, capital of Macedonia, was severely damaged by an earthquake in 1963 and is being rebuilt with U.S. and other foreign assistance.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Created in December 1918 from the independent kingdom of Serbia and various territories formerly ruled by Austria-Hungary, Yugoslavia (Land of the South Slavs) includes many ethnic and religious groups who differ in cultural outlook and historical background: the Serbs (including those known as Montenegrins) number 8.3 million; the Croats, about 4.3 million; the Slovenes, nearly 1.6 million; the Macedonians, over 1 million; and the Bosnian Moslems, nearly 1 million. Minority groups of non-Slavic origin include Albanians, Hungarians, Turks, and Italians.

In religion, most Serbs, Montenegrins, and Macedonians are Eastern Orthodox (42 percent). Most Croats and Slovenes are Roman Catholic (32 percent). The people of Bosnia-Herzegovina, as well as the Albanian and Turkish minority, are predominantly Moslem (12 percent). Yugoslavia's constitution provides for religious freedom but prohibits "misuse" of religion for political purposes.

The predominant language of the country is Serbo-Croatian, written in the Cyrillic alphabet by the Serbs and in the Latin alphabet by the Croats. The second major language, Slovenian, is quite different from Serbo-Croatian and is written in the Latin alphabet. In addition to their mother tongue, many Yugoslavs are familiar with German, Italian, or English.

Historically, there have been a number of national tensions between the Croats and the Serbs. Croats often have considered themselves the more "cultured" of the two groups. And the memory of atrocities perpetrated in World War II by some pro-Nazi Croats (the "Ustaši") still makes many Serbs suspicious of all Croats.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The Yugoslav Communists gained power through revolutionary military activities in World War II, when the Royal Yugoslav Government was in exile in London. "Partisan" forces led by Tito fought simultaneously against the Axis occupiers and a rival Yugoslav resistance movement led by Draža Mihailović, who remained loyal to the Government-in-Exile. Tito's forces consolidated their control of the country with the support of strong Soviet armies which marched through Yugoslavia in late 1944. On November 29, 1945, a Communist-controlled People's Assembly abolished the monarchy and proclaimed the Federated People's Republic of Yugoslavia.

GOVERNMENT: Since the end of World War II, Yugoslavia has been a federal republic under the dictatorship of the Yugoslav Communist Party led by Marshal Tito (Josip Broz). Constitutionally, the government is organized as a federation of six republics: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Macedonia, and Montenegro. Supreme authority is vested in the central government, whose principal organs are the Federal Assembly (composed of several chambers, formally elected), the president of the Republic (Tito), the Federal Executive Council (or cabinet), and the Constitutional Court.

Paralleling the structure of government is the League of Communists of Yugoslavia, which has been in control since 1944. No other parties are permitted, but a mass organization known as the Socialist Alliance mobilizes public support for the regime and assists in election campaigns. As in the Soviet Union, the centralized Communist party exercises a variety of controls over political, economic, and cultural life. Recently, however, Yugoslav leaders have liberalized their system in many nonpolitical spheres, notably in government administration, agriculture, industrial management, and economic planning. These reforms have been part of the Yugoslav effort to build their own version of socialism. They were written into the constitution of 1963, which changed the country's official name to the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

SOVIET-YUGOSLAV RELATIONS: During the early postwar years, Tito and his colleagues followed a foreign policy which in every respect tied Yugoslavia to the Soviet orbit. In 1948, however, Stalin expelled Yugoslavia from membership in the bloc of Communist states because the Yugoslav leadership refused to accept Soviet domination. With economic and military assistance from the U.S. and its Western allies, Tito subsequently managed to survive Stalinist pressure and maintain Yugoslav independence.

In the post-Stalin era, a series of changes occurred in Soviet-Yugoslav relations. From 1955 to 1957, there was renewed cooperation between the Soviet and Yugoslav governments. Then, in November 1957, Tito's refusal to sign an international declaration of Communist unity in Moscow led to a new rupture in relations, and the breach was widened in 1958 by mutual denunciation. Yugoslavia's condemnation of the 1968 Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia has reemphasized Yugoslavia's traditional course as an independent, nonaligned state.

Yugoslav leaders work closely with uncommitted nations, such as India and Egypt, and maintain important economic links with the West. Yugoslavia is not a member of the Warsaw Pact, the military alliance which binds other European Communist states to the Soviet Union.

ECONOMY: Tito's regime has stressed industrial development, and half of the national income now comes from industry and mining. Over half of the country's people, however, are still engaged in agriculture. Small peasant farms prevail, and attempts to collectivize them were halted in 1953.

Industrial, financial, and trade enterprises have been nationalized, but the centralized system of planning and management has been modified since 1950 to let factory managers and workers councils share in decisions. Market forces and the profit motive are limited but do play a tangible part in the way the economy functions. Since 1955, greater emphasis also has been placed on investment in consumer goods, agriculture, and housing construction.

About three-fourths of Yugoslavia's foreign trade in recent years has been with Western nations. A large part of its trade deficit up to 1962 was covered by credit, loans, and agricultural surplus from the U.S. Some trade also has been resumed with Soviet bloc countries, which boycotted Yugoslavia from 1959 to 1964.

EDUCATION: Responsibility for the schools belongs to each of the six republics, not the central government. Eight years of education are compulsory between the ages of 7 and 15. Schools are operated by local authorities with financial aid and curriculum direction from higher agencies of government. There are five universities; the two oldest are at Zagreb (1874) and Belgrade (1905).

FOOD: Yugoslavs enjoy good solid food. Many of their local dishes resemble those common in Austria, Greece, or Turkey. Favorites include lamb and vegetables; fish in spicy paprika sauce; beef and veal sausage; and casserole of beef, potatoes, and onions. Plums are an outstanding Yugoslav specialty, used for plum jam and prune brandy (*slivovitz*).

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 29, the date in 1945 when the Federated People's Republic of Yugoslavia was proclaimed.

CULTURAL NOTE: Yugoslavs are proud of artists and scientists from their country who have won acclaim in the United States. Notable examples are Ivan Městrovic, the famous Croatian sculptor who died in 1962 and Zinka Milanov, a leading soprano of the Metropolitan Opera, born in Zagreb. A special museum in Belgrade honors the well-known electrical inventor Nikola Tesla (1856-1943), who settled in the U.S. at a relatively early age and was the first to devise an effective method for transmitting alternating current.

MIDDLE EAST

There is no universally accepted formula for defining the boundaries of the Middle East. In this book the term is used arbitrarily for the area extending roughly from Turkey to Aden and from Egypt to Iran. The term Middle East came into prominence after World War I, when the British began applying it to a region of special interest bordering the Persian Gulf. It is now used interchangeably with the older term Near East to describe the junction area of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Both terms have evolved from the European practice of using the term East for all lands beyond the eastern limits of their own civilization. Fifteen Middle Eastern countries are described in this section: Cyprus, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Muscat and Oman, Saudi Arabia, Southern Yemen, Syria, Turkey, the United Arab Republic, Yemen, and the Persian Gulf Sheikdoms (Bahrain, Qatar, and the Trucial States).

Because of its geographical location at the crossroads of three continents, the Middle East has long been of strategic importance to outside powers. Since the completion of the Suez Canal in 1869, the area has been the key link in sea communications between Europe and Asia, and in the twentieth century it has also served as a significant link in international air communications. Although the recent development of intercontinental missiles and the closing of the Suez Canal have reduced the strategic importance of the Middle East in world politics, the area is still of commercial importance because of the existence of nearly two thirds of the world's proved oil reserves in the Middle East (although not every country in the area is an oil producer). The Persian Gulf currently supplies a large portion of the oil needs of the Far East and about three fourths of the oil requirements of Europe. The discovery of large petroleum reserves in North Africa may reduce Europe's dependence on Middle East oil in the future.

Throughout most of the Middle East, the Arabs are the predominant national group. However, the Iranians are of Persian origin and culture, Hebrew-speaking Jews inhabit most of Israel, and the Turks speak their own language and enjoy their own distinctive culture and customs. The island-state of Cyprus is distinguished by a Greek ethnic majority and a Turkish minority.

Arab customs vary from country to country, although in a general sense it may be said that traditional Arab family life is close-knit and patriarchal. Members of the same family often work together in the same enterprise. The individual Arab is proud of his history, culture, and language; he feels a strong affinity toward others who share them. Arabic is spoken not only in the Middle East, but across all of North Africa and in many parts of Central and East Africa.

Islam is the majority religion in all of the countries of the Middle East except Israel, where Judaism is predominant; Lebanon, where approximately half the population is Christian; and Cyprus, where about 80 percent of the population is Christian. Minorities include Armenians (Christian), Assyrians (Nestorian Christian), and Kurds (Moslem).

Social, economic, and educational differences are great among the peoples of this tricontinental area. Most are settled farmers and city dwellers, but nomadic tribesmen are also significant elements in the population of some countries. Many Middle Eastern states have a sizable commercial class; and with the expansion of educational opportunities a growing number of persons are entering professional, technical, and white-collar occupations.

Agriculture is the primary economic activity in the Middle East. There are continual efforts in all of the countries to increase agricultural production in order to sustain growing populations. Lack of water is one of the chief obstacles, although considerable progress is being made in the building of dams and reservoirs, construction of irrigation systems, and experimentation with desalinization. For centuries, arable land has been controlled by a small wealthy landowning class. Recent years, however, have seen efforts to break up large landholdings, especially in the United Arab Republic and Iraq. Attempts are also being made to expand existing industries and develop new ones. Grants and credits from the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain, West Germany, and the International Bank have supplemented petroleum revenues for financing a variety of developmental projects.

By Western standards, the Middle East is politically unstable. Many of the states are in a transitional stage from monarchy or foreign control to new systems of government. Experiments in democratic government along Western lines have often been limited to the external forms and have in several of the countries been replaced by highly centralized military regimes. Nationalism--a major force in the area--is most often characterized by a desire to maintain complete national independence; to revive the rich cultural heritage of past centuries when the area was a leading center of world civilization; and to raise the standard of living through political, economic, and social development.

NOTE ON MIDDLE EASTERN FOOD

The staple foods of most Middle Eastern peoples are bread, rice, lentils, and white cheese made from goat's milk. Arabic specialty dishes include kibbe' (ground lamb and crushed wheat), taboole (a salad of boiled crushed wheat, parsley, mint, and tomatoes), baba ghanouj (egg plant, garlic, lemon, and sesame oil), and homos bitkeeni (chickpeas, garlic, lemon, and sesame oil). Most Moslems of the Middle East do not eat pork, and many do not take alcoholic drinks. Data on Jewish food are provided in the section on Israel.

2

CYPRUS

LOCATION AND SIZE: The third largest island in the Mediterranean Sea, Cyprus lies about 45 miles south of Turkey, 60 miles west of Syria, and 240 miles north of Egypt. It has an area of 3, 572 square miles, about half the size of New Jersey.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Hills and mountains predominate in the Cypriot landscape. The low Kyrenia range stretches along the northern coast, its peaks studded with castles erected by medieval crusaders. The more rugged and craggy Troodos mountains of the southwest reach their highest point in Mt. Olympus (6, 406 feet) and send out rocky spurs in many directions. Between these two parallel mountain systems lies a narrow, treeless plain called the Mesaoria, which is the island's chief agricultural region.

The climate is predominantly dry and sunny, with hot summers and cool winters. Temperatures seldom fall below freezing except in the higher peaks of the Troodos, which are covered with snow in winter. Rainfall varies with 12 to 45 inches, and droughts are common.

CITIES: Nicosia, the capital and largest city of Cyprus, is located on the sun-baked central plain and has a population of almost 104, 000. Other important urban centers, all situated along the coast, are Limassol (population 47, 000), Famagusta (39, 000), Larnaca (22, 000), Paphos (10, 000), and Kyrenia (4, 000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 78 percent of the present 614, 000 population of Cyprus are of Greek origin and 18 percent of Turkish origin. There are also small numbers of Maronites and Armenians.

The Greek Cypriots and the Turkish Cypriots have long lived as completely separate communities, each preserving its own national identity. Greek Cypriots belong to the Church of Cyprus, one of the oldest independent and coequal members of the Eastern Orthodox Church. The archbishop of the Cyprus Church is also the secular leader (ethnarch) of the Greek Cypriot community. Archbishop Makarios III has been the most prominent figure in the Cypriot nationalist movement. Turkish Cypriots are followers of Islam, the Moslem faith. Each of the two major ethnic groups retains its own language, but English is widely spoken by both communities in the urban centers.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Cyprus has been predominantly influenced by Greek culture. Greek colonists came to the island as early as 1400 B. C., and in the Christian era the influence by Byzantium has persisted to the present day. Political control has been exercised at various times in the past 2, 500 years by Egyptians, Persians, Romans, Byzantines, Saracens, Franks, Venetians, Turks, and Britons. From 1571 to 1878 Cyprus was ruled by Ottoman Turkey, and in that period a substantial number of Turks settled on the island. Britain took over the administration of Cyprus in 1878 and formally annexed the island at the outbreak of World War I.

GOVERNMENT: Cyprus became an independent republic on August 16, 1960, after 82 years of British rule. Self-government was long delayed because of difficulties in reconciling the conflicting nationalist claims of the island's two major peoples, backed respectively by Greece and Turkey. The Greek Cypriot drive for enosis--union with Greece--was accompanied by a campaign of terrorism from 1955 to 1959. In opposing the Greek drive, the Turkish community urged partition of the island into Greek and Turkish zones and also resorted to violent action.

The country's independent status was established under the London-Zurich Agreements concluded in 1959 among Britain, Greece, Turkey, and Cypriot leaders (both Greek and Turkish). These agreements prohibited both union of the island with Greece and its partition between Greeks and Turks. They also established Greece, Turkey, and Britain as Guarantors of the new republic's independence, territorial integrity, and security.

Under the settlement of 1959, Cyprus was given a constitution that perpetuated the historic division of the people along communal lines. The president was elected by the Greek Cypriot community, the vice-president by the Turkish Cypriot community, and each of these two officials had veto power over legislation in certain fields. The cabinet was composed of seven Greeks and three Turks, and the national legislature included 35 Greek Cypriots and 15 Turkish Cypriots. Both communities also were supposed to be represented along proportional lines in the civil service, the security forces, and the Cypriot army. Since 1959 Archbishop Makarios III has been president and Dr. Fazil Kuchuk has been vice-president.

POLITICAL CRISIS: Cooperation between the leaders of the two communities gave way to increasing friction. Tension mounted when President Makarios on December 9, 1963, proposed constitutional reforms that were unacceptable to Turkey and the Turkish Cypriots. On December 21, the tension erupted into violent clashes between Greek and Turkish Cypriots, which precipitated an international crisis. Order was restored temporarily by British troops based on Cyprus, but the problem came before the UN Security Council in February 1964. The Council voted to establish a UN peacekeeping force in Cyprus and to send a UN mediator to promote a political settlement.

No major crisis occurred again until November 1967, when an attack on two Turkish Cypriot villages led to a major confrontation between Greece and Turkey. War was averted once more by U.S. mediation work. The UN peacekeeping force now numbers 3,700 men from eight countries. In an effort to find a settlement suitable to all parties involved, secret negotiations between the Greek and Turkish Cypriots began in June 1968 and are continuing.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS: Since the crisis of 1963-64, the government has been operating without the participation of Turkish Cypriot members and implementation of the constitution has been in abeyance. The executive branch under President Makarios and the national legislature are manned entirely by Greek Cypriots. In the courts, however, Turkish Cypriot judges continue to sit with their Greek Cypriot colleagues. The Greek Cypriot National Guard and lesser components of the Armed Forces are commanded by General Grivas, who led the Greek Cypriot campaign in the 1950's. Turkish Cypriots administer the few areas of the country over which they have effective control, such as between Nicosia and Kyrenia.

ECONOMY: The island's economy is predominantly agricultural, and half the labor force is engaged directly in farming. Forestry, mining, and small-scale manufacturing are also important activities. The chief mineral deposits are copper concentrates and copper pyrites. Indeed, the island is believed to have derived its name from, or given its name to, the Greek word for copper--kypros. Currently, the U.S.-owned Cyprus Mines Corporation is the largest enterprise on Cyprus.

British expenditures associated with the construction of military base facilities on Cyprus stimulated much local economic activity during the 1950's. The island's prosperity depends largely on the presence of these British military bases and on a Commonwealth market in Britain for Cypriot agricultural produce. In recent years Cyprus has been importing twice as much as it exports.

EDUCATION: Separate educational systems long have been maintained for each ethnic group in Cyprus, and this practice has been continued since independence by constitutional arrangement. Elementary schools are subject to governmental control, the government prescribing the curriculum, appointing the teachers, and financing over 70 percent of the costs. Secondary schools are under the direction of various ethnic (communal) committees. Over one-fifth of the population is in either primary or secondary school. There are also a few technical, agricultural, and teacher-training schools. The literacy rate is placed at 82 percent.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 16, Independence Day (1960).

IRAN

LOCATION: Lying between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf, modern Iran includes the core of ancient Persia. Its present area is 628,000 square miles. In the north Iran borders the U.S.S.R.; in the west, Turkey and Iraq; in the east, Afghanistan and Pakistan. In 1969 Iran and Iraq disputed navigation rights in the Shatt-al-Arab waterway forming their common border.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Iran is a high plateau 4,000 feet above sea level, broken by mountains. Two great ranges, the Zagros in the south and the Elburz in the north, form an apex in northwestern Iran. The central plateau levels off into desert as it reaches the borders of Afghanistan and Pakistan. A narrow coastal plain, below sea level, runs along the Caspian Sea. Summers on the plateau are hot and dry, winter months are cold in the higher altitudes, and snow often falls in the mountains.

CITIES: Teheran, the capital, lies in the foothills of the northern Elburz Mountains at an altitude of 5,000 feet. It is a bustling, modern city, with many ancient Eastern features. Isfahan is renowned for its bazaars, mosques, and other monuments exemplifying the country's rich cultural history. Tabriz, the capital of the province of Azerbaijan, has long been a leading commercial center. Meshed rivals Tabriz as a commercial center and is also known for its holy shrine, the burial place of Ali Reza, eighth Imam of the Shi'a. In the south Shiraz is well-known for its poets, gardens, and wine; Abadan, near the Persian Gulf, is the great petroleum center of the country. About a third of the country's people live in cities and large towns.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Iran's population is estimated at 26 million. Persian is the official language. Over 90 percent of the country's people are Moslems of the Shi'a sect (one of the two main divisions of Islam), and the constitution requires that the shah and all cabinet ministers be Moslems. The principal language--Persian--is Indo-European. English and French are spoken widely in the cities. Religious minorities include Armenian Christians, Nestorian Christians, Zoroastrians, Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews. Tribal life has traditionally been a part of Iranian society; Bakhtiari and Qashqai are the two largest tribes, although many Kurds are found in northwestern Iran. Nomadic or seminomadic tribesmen form an estimated 17 percent of the country's population. Most Iranians are peasant farmers living in rural villages.

MODERN HISTORY: Until the early twentieth century, Iran was a feudal state ruled by an all-powerful shah. In 1906 a constitutional monarchy was formed with a weak parliament and the bulk of the power still in the hands of the ruling shah. Internal disorder characterized the new system, with foreign influence (especially following the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907) largely determining the course of Iranian politics. By the end of World War I, Iran was in political and financial chaos. A powerful leader emerged in the person of Reza Khan, who became prime minister in 1923 and, as Reza Shah, assumed the crown in 1926. Reza Shah Pahlevi slowly reinstated the authority of the central government over most of Iran, terminated many of the foreign concessions previously granted, and introduced a sweeping program of Westernization, including a reorganization of Iranian public finances, industrial development, free and compulsory education, and a score of social reforms, e.g., the wearing of modern dress. Alleged sympathy for the Axis during World War II led to his abdication under Anglo-Soviet pressure. He was succeeded on the throne by his son, the present ruler, Muhammad Reza Shah Pahlevi.

GOVERNMENT: Iran is a constitutional monarchy with a cabinet, a two-house legislature, and a hierarchy of courts. The Shah is chief of state, and his constitutional powers include authority to name the prime minister, dissolve the legislature, and command the armed forces. The legislature consists of the National Assembly (Majlis) and the Senate. The Majlis is an elected body, while half of the senators are appointed by the Shah and half are elected.

Women were given the right to vote for the first time in the parliamentary elections of 1963. Female suffrage was introduced as part of a broad reform program sponsored by the Shah. Other reform measures launched by the Shah's government in 1962-63 called for the distribution of more land among the peasants, distribution of a larger share of factory profits among the workers, nationalization of forests, creation of a literacy corps to teach in rural areas, and the sale of some state factories to private enterprise. There has been a fair amount of internal resistance to the reforms.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the chief economic activity, although only one-third of the country is suitable for cultivation and considerably less than that is actually worked. Historically, most of the arable land has been in the hands of the state, the shah, and the wealthy landowners. Since 1949, state and crown lands have been distributed or sold on an installment plan. Lack of water is an age-old problem, and dry farming is widely practiced. Several irrigation, flood control, and water supply projects are currently under way as part of the effort to increase agricultural production. Principal crops are grains, rice, tobacco, cotton, fruit, oil seeds, and sugar beets. Opium, a highly profitable export crop, is still cultivated, although the government has been campaigning against its cultivation and use since 1955.

Industrial development began in the 1930's with concentration of textile, cement, glass and cigarette production. Since 1955, greater political stability, income from oil, development plans, and foreign assistance have tripled the number of factories. More than one-third of all industrial plants are located in Teheran. Handicrafts are still important, the Iranians being renowned for production of fine Persian carpets and intricate silver work.

Iran is the world's fourth largest oil producer; it has 10 percent of the world's proved oil reserves. The first concession was granted in 1901; the first well drilled in 1908. Production was directed by the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company until the concession was terminated and the petroleum industry nationalized in 1951 (under the government of Premier Mosaddeq). An agreement was reached in 1954 for a consortium of foreign oil companies to operate Iran's oil industry. Since then, additional fields have been found by other companies, production has increased sharply, and government oil revenues rose over $700 million in 1967.

In November 1967 the U. S. and Iran celebrated the end of American economic aid begun in 1951. Both countries agreed it was no longer necessary in view of Iran's growing prosperity.

EDUCATION: There are still not enough facilities to provide primary education for all children. Income from petroleum is being used to step up a program of school construction and teacher training. To reduce the high rate of illiteracy (estimated at 75 percent), special programs have been organized to teach adult villagers how to read and write. The University of Teheran has over 14, 000 students, and there are six small provincial universities. Iran has been experiencing a "brain drain" because many Iranian students who go abroad for college training and advanced degrees have been reluctant to return.

FOOD: Bread, rice, and white cheese made from goat's milk are mainstays of the Iranian diet. *Chelo kabab* (rice and broiled lamb) and *shrin pillo* (chicken or lamb with rice, vegetables, and nuts) are typical dishes.

HOLIDAYS: The New Year holiday (No Ruz), beginning about March 21 and continuing for five days, is the major annual observance. The birthday of the Shah, October 26, is celebrated abroad as Iran's national day. Constitution Day, in August, is another annual holiday.

CULTURAL NOTE: Persia, with a thriving culture before the time of Christ, has always been known for its poets. Nearly ten centuries ago, Firdausi wrote the vast epic known as the *Shahnamah* (Book of Kings), relating in heroic couplets the great deeds and ancient victories of Persian heroes (e. g., Rustem and Sohrab). Sa'di (thirteenth century) and Hafiz (fourteenth century) also rank high among the nation's poets; their tombs are well-visited sites in Shiraz. Of all Persian poets, Omar Khayyam probably is the best known in the West. In his own country, however, he is remembered more for his mathematics and astronomy than for his poetry.

IRAQ

LOCATION: Iraq--the modern name for Mesopotamia--is situated between and around the great Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in the heart of the Middle East. It has a tip of coastline along the northern end of the Persian Gulf and shares borders with Iran on the east, Turkey on the north, Syria and Jordan on the west, Saudi Arabia on the southwest, and Kuwait and the Neutral Zone in the southeast. Only about half of the country's 175, 000 square miles of territory consists of settled provinces. In 1969 Iran and Iraq disputed navigation rights in the Shatt-al-Arab waterway forming their common border.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Northeastern Iraq is mountainous, with the highlands of Kurdistan rising above 10, 000 feet. Most of the western and southern parts of the country are desert uplands, while the region near the Persian Gulf is marshy and muddy flood plain. The fertile central plain between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers is economically the richest section of the country. The Tigris (1, 150 miles in length) and the Euphrates (1, 460 miles in length) both rise in Turkey, flow through Iraq, and join just above Basrah to form the Shatt al-Arab, a broad waterway to the Persian Gulf. Since both rivers often change their courses and cause serious floods, the people of the plain have always had to construct irrigation works and dams to control them. Summers in Iraq are hot and dry; winters are usually cold (except in the extreme south). Rainfall averages less than 15 inches a year, except for the northeastern highlands, which receive up to 25 inches of rain each year.

CITIES: Baghdad, Iraq's capital and largest city, has a population of more than 1. 7 million (including suburbs). The city has known a glorious past, especially as the capital of the Abbasid Caliphate (A. D. 750-1258), and today combines the ancient and modern in splendid mosques, crowded bazaars, modern government and commercial buildings, new sports stadiums, and broad and narrow streets. Mosul, in the heart of the northern oil region, has a population of 243, 000. Basrah, the country's main port, is a city of 313, 000 people. Kirkuk, in the northeast, is another oil center, population over 90, 000. Karbala, west of the Euphrates, population over 45, 000, is a religious shrine for those professing Shi'a Islam.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Iraq's estimated 8. 5 million population is mostly Arab, and Arabic is the official language. The Kurds, numbering around a million, are the most important minority; they are a seminomadic people inhabiting the mountain regions bordering Turkey and Iran. There are many small ethnic minorities, including Turkomans, Armenians, and the so-called Marsh Arabs.

Most Iraqis are Moslem, either Sunni or Shi'a. About 5 percent of the population is Christian, adhering mainly to Eastern forms of Christianity. Only a few thousand Jews remain in Iraq because most have emigrated to Israel. Another religious minority group are the Yazidis, a Kurdish tribal group.

Most of Iraq's people live in rural villages. A substantial number are nomadic tribesmen and Bedouin, who adhere to ancient dress and custom. In the cities Western dress is usually worn, and English is often spoken by the educated minority. Some Iraqi women have entered the professions of teaching, law, and medicine; in 1959 a woman was appointed to the cabinet for the first time.

MODERN HISTORY: Iraq emerged as a separate country following World War I. For nearly four centuries before 1918, its settled areas were ruled as three provinces of the Ottoman Empire. A British campaign against the Turks during World War I ended with all of Iraq under British military occupation in 1918. When Britain was granted a mandate over the country in 1920, the Iraqis revolted. Although the British suppressed the revolt, they accepted an Arab Council of State for administration and recognized the accession to the throne of King Faisal in 1921. Iraq was granted independence in 1932, but British influence continued for many years.

The monarchy was overthrown by a military coup on July 14, 1958, and both King Faisal II and Prime Minister Nuri Sa'id were killed. Iraq was then proclaimed a republic under the leadership of Brigadier General Kassim ('Abd al-Karin Qasim). The Kassim government subsequently terminated Iraq's military alignment with the West by withdrawing from the Baghdad Pact (now called the Central Treaty Organization).

GOVERNMENT: The Republic of Iraq was established under military leadership in July 1958. For four and a half years, power rested with General Kassim, who ruled with a cabinet and a presidential council. In February 1963 his regime was overthrown by an army revolt, and Kassim was executed. Supreme power was assumed by the National Council of the Revolutionary Command, and Colonel Abd al-Salam Arif was appointed president. Adherents of the Baath (Arab Renaissance) Party held a strong position in the new cabinet until November 1963, when they were deposed by President Arif and his Arab nationalist supporters. In April 1966 the president was killed in an air crash; and his brother, Maj. Gen. Abd al-Rahman Arif, was named president of the Republic by the ruling junta in 1967. Arif was ousted in July 1968 by a military coup led by Maj. Gen. Ahmed Hassan al-Bakr.

In June 1967 Iraq broke diplomatic relations with the U. S. following U. A. R. charges that America aided Israel in the six-day war.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the livelihood of three-fourths of the population and provides most of the country's exports apart from oil. The northeastern part of Iraq has sufficient rainfall to grow winter crops without irrigation. The central plains area depends on the water of the Tigris and Euphrates. For years most of the country's arable land has been in the hands of a few large landlords, but efforts have been made since 1958 to distribute this land among the peasants. The chief crops are barley, wheat, rice, sesame, dates, and citrus fruits.

Although industrial diversification is being sought, petroleum remains Iraq's chief industry and major source of revenue (60 percent). Production is managed by three leading companies, each owned by British, French, and American oil interests plus the Gulbenkian interests. The main oil field is at Kirkuk.

In December 1967 Iraq charged that the Western-controlled Iraq Petroleum Company had sabotaged one of its own pipelines. In the same month Iraq announced the signing of an agreement with the U. S. S. R. to develop rich new fields in southern Iraq, a step regarded as an important breakthrough for the U. S. S. R. in obtaining Middle East oil.

EDUCATION: Primary education in Iraq is free and compulsory. It is estimated that 60 percent of the population is illiterate. The whole thrust of educational policy now is to emphasize compulsory, universal, primary education for all children; fundamental education for adults; and vocational technical education related to developmental needs. Institutions of higher education date from the 1920's. In 1958 most of Baghdad's colleges were amalgamated into the state-run University of Baghdad. The Al-Hikma University of Baghdad, established by the Jesuit order in 1956, offers courses in business administration, physics, and engineering. The Iraqi government sends hundreds of students abroad for training each year.

HOLIDAYS: July 14, the anniversary of the 1958 revolution, is the major national holiday. Religious holidays of Islam are also observed.

ISRAEL

LOCATION AND SIZE: Israel, a small country about the size of New Jersey, lies along the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. It is bordered on the north by Lebanon and Syria, on the east by Jordan, and on the south by the United Arab Republic. In the extreme south, Israel has a coastline on the Gulf of Aqaba, leading into the Red Sea. Many parts of Israel's borders are disputed by its Middle Eastern neighbors. In the six-day June 1967 war the Israelis took the Gaza Strip, occupied the Sinai peninsula to the Suez Canal, and captured Old Jerusalem and other Jordanian and Syrian territory.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Israel's terrain consists of a fertile coastal plain along the Mediterranean, a hill region in the northern and central parts of the country, and the Negev desert region in the south. The Jordan River, which for about 70 miles separates Israel and Jordan, has always been a source of friction between Israel and the Arab states. For the most part, Israel enjoys a typical Mediterranean climate: hot and dry in the summer, cool and wet in the winter. The Negev is almost entirely hot and dry, while the mountainous area in the north is usually cool.

CITIES: Until the six-day war in 1967, Jerusalem (population 195,700) had been a divided city, and movement between the Israeli and Jordanian sectors was not permitted. The Government of Israel has proclaimed Jerusalem the capital, but it is not recognized as such by the United Nations, the United States, and several other countries, whose diplomatic missions remain in Tel Aviv. Tel Aviv is Israel's largest city (population 400,000, including Jaffa). Haifa is the country's primary seaport.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Jews from all parts of the world have immigrated to the country since its founding in 1948. As a result, the Jewish population has risen from about 717,000 in November 1948 to an estimated 2.4 million in 1967. The new people have brought diverse languages, customs, skills, and talents. Judaism is the official religion. Some Israelis hold to strict orthodox religious views, while others adhere to reformed or liberal views. Hebrew, the official language, is being used increasingly for everyday communication. English is taught as a foreign language in all secondary schools.

The non-Jewish population in Israel (over 275,000) consists largely of Moslem or Christian Arabs. The Arabs are granted equality by the Israeli Declaration of Independence and are permitted to vote and sit in the country's parliament if elected to that body. In some border areas, however, Arabs are under security restrictions and are not allowed to move about freely.

MODERN HISTORY: Palestine was under the rule of the Ottoman Empire for four centuries before it became part of the British mandate system following World War I. The forces of political Zionism and Arab nationalism clashed as early as 1919 over Jewish desires to establish a national homeland in Palestine. The Zionists relied on the promise secured from the British government in the Balfour Declaration of 1917, while the Arabs of Palestine relied on certain promises made to them by the British in the wartime Husayn-McMahon Correspondence. The conflict became more bitter during the mandate period as the Jewish community in Palestine was enlarged through immigration. Disorder and unrest continued through World War II.

In an effort to settle the conflict, the UN General Assembly on November 29, 1947, adopted a resolution calling for partition of Palestine into two states--a Jewish state and an Arab state, with Jerusalem internationalized. The UN, however, was not able to put this plan into effect. When Britain ended the mandate in May 1948, the Jews in Palestine proclaimed the State of Israel and the Arabs resorted to open warfare, with regular troops from several Arab states coming to the assistance of their Palestinian brothers. During the fighting, most local Arabs fled from the western area of Palestine and became refugees in neighboring Arab countries. Armistice agreements were signed in 1949, but no Arab state recognizes Israel and no travel is permitted between Israel and any Arab country.

An uneasy truce between Israel and the Arab countries prevailed until May 19, 1967, when UN forces were asked to withdraw by Egypt's President Gamal Abdel Nasser. Egyptian forces rapidly reoccupied the Gaza Strip and closed the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping. A full-scale six-day war lasted from June 5 to June 10. Beginning in March 1968 almost daily artillery duels have been fought along the Suez Canal.

GOVERNMENT: Israel is a republic with a president elected by the Knesset (parliament) as head of state. The Knesset is a unicameral legislature of 120 members elected for a four-year term by all qualified citizens over 18 years of age. Executive functions are exercised by the cabinet, headed by a premier. The premier is appointed by the president, after consultation with political party leaders. There are over a dozen political parties, and all Israeli governments to date have been coalitions.

ECONOMY: While Israel still depends on foreign funds--primarily from the United States--to bolster its economy, progress is being made toward self-sufficiency through agricultural and industrial expansion. The gross national product has been growing at a rate of 10 percent a year, despite the population increase.

Many of Israel's unskilled immigrants have gone into farming, usually as members of collective farms or looser cooperative associations. To increase the amount of farmland, a reclamation program has been instituted in the Negev, where projects are under way for irrigation. The Negev region also has huge phosphate deposits, copper, oil, natural gas, and potash. Israel is now self-sufficient in the production of fodder, vegetables, dairy produce, and citrus fruits; meat and wheat must be imported.

Though basically agricultural, Israel is the most industrialized country in the area. Major expansion has taken place in textile, shoe, clothing, electrical, and chemical manufactures. There has also been some expansion in production of capital goods. Most industrial raw materials must be imported. Industrial handicaps include high wages, low productivity, shortage of capital, and a severe labor shortage.

An important element in Israel's economy is the Histadrut (General Federation of Jewish Labor), a confederation of most of the trade unions in the country. In addition to its collective bargaining and other union functions, Histadrut is owner or part-owner on a cooperative basis of a number of large industrial concerns and financial institutions. It also operates a network of health and medical services, including hospitals and convalescent homes.

EDUCATION: Education is free and compulsory for all children between 5 and 14. The elementary school system has been state-administered since 1953, with provision for state religious schools. Secondary schools operate with government grants and tuition fees. Institutions of higher learning include the Hebrew University in Jerusalem, the Israel Institute of Technology in Haifa, Bar-Ilan University in Ramat-Gan, and the University of Tel Aviv. The Weizmann Institute of Science is a renowned research institution.

FOOD: Jewish dishes in Israel differ widely in preparation and use according to the area of the world from which they originate. Usually cooking is subject to religious dietary laws and customs. Some typical Jewish foods are kreplach (chopped meat or cheese enclosed in dough and cooked in soup); kneidlach (balls made of matzoh flour, eggs, and fat); and blintzes (cheese and egg wrapped in thin dough and fried or baked). Fish specialties and sweet-and-sour meats are also a frequent part of a Jewish meal.

HOLIDAYS: Independence Day is celebrated in April or May. Major religious holidays include Rosh Hashana (New Year), September or October; Yom Kippur (Day of Atonement), September or October; Hanukkah (Festival of Lights), December; and Pesach (Passover), beginning of spring season.

JORDAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: The independent Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan occupies a strategic position among the countries of the Middle East. It is bordered on the west by Israel, on the north by Lebanon and Syria, on the east by Iraq and Saudi Arabia, and on the south by Saudi Arabia. In the extreme south Jordan touches the Gulf of Aqaba, its only outlet to the sea.

Territorially, Jordan has a total area of 36, 715 square miles, over 2, 100 square miles of which lie west of the Jordan River.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The region to the west of the Jordan River consists of hill country which formerly was part of central Palestine. East of the Jordan the land consists of an arid, hilly plateau sloping into a large desert area. The Jordan River Valley lies about 650 feet below sea level at its northern end and reaches a maximum depth of about 1, 300 feet below sea level at the Dead Sea. Summers in Jordan are hot and dry. Winters are cool and somewhat rainy in the higher areas, but the Dead Sea Valley is warm throughout the year.

CITIES: Amman, the nation's capital, on the east bank of the Jordan, has a population of about 330, 000. Jericho and Nablus are smaller cities with populations of over 45, 000. Bethlehem and Hebron, both of Biblical fame, are also in Jordan. Aqaba in the south is the country's only port.

In the 1967 Arab-Israeli war, Jordan lost jurisdiction over its half of Jerusalem, and Israel won control of the Old City, famous for many religious shrines sacred to Christians, Jews, and Moslems.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Jordan now has an estimated population of 2. 1 million. Roughly one-half live in the territory west of the Jordan River. Some 600, 000 Palestinian Arab refugees live largely in camps on subsistence rations supplied by the United Nations. Although the population is mostly Arab, various small ethnic minorities, such as the Circassians, also are found in the country. Arabic is the official language; Islam the prevailing religion. About 12 percent of the country's citizens are Christian. Most educated Jordanians speak English.

MODERN HISTORY: The territory of present-day Jordan was a part of the Ottoman Empire from the sixteenth century until the end of World War I. After that war, the area became part of the British mandate over Palestine. In the early 1920's, the region lying east of the Jordan River was separated from Palestine and organized as a separate state called Transjordan. Abdullah of the Hashemite dynasty (brother of Faisal of Iraq) was named ruler, subject to British guidance. In 1946 Transjordan was granted full independence, and two years later Abdullah was proclaimed King.

During the 1948 Arab-Israeli war, the country's famed Arab Legion effectively occupied an Arab portion of Palestine west of the Jordan River and the Dead Sea. When this territory was formally annexed to Transjordan in 1950, the country changed its name to the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. Residents of the annexed territory and Arab refugees from lands now within Israel became citizens of the new state and were enfranchised.

In 1951 King Abdullah was assassinated. He was succeeded by his son, Talal, who was declared unfit to rule in 1952 because of mental incompetency. King Hussein I, grandson of Abdullah, has ruled Jordan since 1953.

GOVERNMENT: Jordan is a constitutional monarchy. The king exercises extensive powers over the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government. The legislature consists of an upper house appointed by the king and a lower house elected by universal male suffrage. Executive authority is delegated to a cabinet of ministers, headed by a prime minister.

ECONOMY: Farming and herding are the chief occupations, supplemented by local handicrafts. On the west bank of the Jordan the land is poor, but well farmed, the hills terraced. Farming on the east bank is primitive, but foreign technical missions have helped improve agricultural methods. The chief crops are wheat and barley, olives, fruit, and vegetables. Lack of water is a basic problem. Jordan's major effort to bring more land under irrigation is the East Ghor Canal project, using water from the Yarmuk River in the Jordan Valley.

There is little industry in Jordan, except for small processing plants and an oil refinery. Few mineral resources and a lack of fuel have greatly handicapped industrial development. With external assistance, a development bank has been established to finance suitable industries, and some progress has been made. Jordan is exporting natural phosphates and planning extraction of potash from the Dead Sea.

The tourist trade is of much help to Jordan's economy; thousands arrive each year to visit places of Biblical and historical interest. Industries include tobacco, flour milling, distilling, building materials, olive oil, soap, mother-of-pearl, textiles, plastics, cement, steel, batteries, and leather.

EDUCATION: Primary education is free and has been compulsory since 1952. Facilities in rural areas are still limited. Several thousand Jordanian children are educated in schools established by the UN Relief and Works Agency. About 80 percent of the adult population on the east bank is illiterate. The first four-year, college-level institution in the country is the University of Jordan, opened in 1962.

HOLIDAYS: Independence Day, May 25, and King Hussein's birthday, November 14, are the major national holidays. The main religious holidays are those of Islam.

KUWAIT

LOCATION AND SIZE: The State of Kuwait lies in the northeastern corner of the Arabian Peninsula, along the shore of the Persian Gulf. It is bounded on the north and west by Iraq and on the south by Saudi Arabia. A small country with some of its boundaries still ill-defined, Kuwait is estimated to have an area of approximately 6,000 square miles, slightly larger than Connecticut. Kuwait also holds a joint interest with Saudi Arabia in the Kuwait-Saudi Arabian Neutral Zone adjoining the southern border of Kuwait proper.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Kuwait is riverless desert interspersed with small hills. Temperatures are high throughout the year and reach up to 130 degrees in the summer months. Vegetation is sparse except at intervals when sufficient rain falls.

Kuwait's reputation as a "golden land" derives from its great wealth of oil, which is near the surface, adjacent to the sea, and of very high quality. Its oil resources include the world's richest single oil field, the Burgan Sands, an area of 30 square miles, some 14 miles from the coast, and only 3,400 feet deep.

CAPITAL CITY: Over half the country's people live in the capital city of Kuwait and its suburbs. Situated on a bay of the Persian Gulf, this city is the country's commercial center and chief port. Since the 1950's, Kuwait has acquired a modern business center, Western-style suburbs, air-conditioning, and television. Oil operations center in the Ahmadi complex, south of the capital city.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The estimated 534,000 population (1966) of Kuwait is mainly Arab in origin, but less than half is indigenous. Large numbers of Arabs from nearby states have settled in Kuwait as oil production has brought prosperity within the past two decades. Non-Arab groups include a sizable Iranian community and several thousand Indian and Pakistani residents, as well as British and American nationals associated with the oil industry.

The native-born Kuwaitis are Sunni Moslems. Arabic is the official language. English is understood on a fairly wide scale and is taught as the second language in Kuwait's schools.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The State of Kuwait became independent on June 19, 1961. For 62 years before independence it was under British protection, and its foreign policy was controlled by Britain. Following independence, Iraq claimed sovereignty over the country, and British troops were called in to protect Kuwait from the Iraqi threat. The British troops were replaced by an Arab League force which remained in Kuwait until January 1963. Iraq formally recognized Kuwait's independence in October 1963.

GOVERNMENT: Kuwait is an amirate in an early stage of parliamentary development. Amir Abdullah al-Salim al-Sabah, the present ruler, ascended the throne in 1950. Succession is limited to members of the Mubarak line of the al-Sabah family.

The Amir rules with the assistance of the Council of Ministers, which he chooses, and the National Assembly, elected under the constitution promulgated in November 1962. The 50 members of the National Assembly are elected for four-year terms. The first Assembly was elected in January 1963 by native-born Kuwaiti males. There are no political parties.

ECONOMY: Production and export of Kuwait oil on a large scale was stimulated by the Iranian oil crisis of 1951. Since 1953 Kuwait has been the leading oil producer in the Middle East, and currently it ranks as the fifth largest producer in the world. Crude oil production in Kuwait and Kuwait's share of Neutral Zone production averaged almost 2.5 million barrels a day in 1967, and from this oil the Kuwait government received revenues totaling around $710 million. Altogether, Kuwait has reserves exceeding 68 billion barrels of petroleum, which amount to some 18 percent of the world's known reserves. The Kuwait Oil Company, owned by British and American interests, is the principal foreign operator in Kuwait, but other firms work offshore and Neutral Zone concessions. Kuwait has organized its own National Petroleum Company.

Riches from oil have transformed the Kuwait economy, which formerly depended on small trading and pearl-fishing industries. With its income from oil, the Kuwait government has undertaken a host of social welfare, public works, and development schemes. It now provides free medical services as well as free education for all residents of the state. It has financed a large construction program to modernize ports and roads, erect public buildings, develop an international airport, and build a seawater distillation plant. Many enterprises related to the construction and petroleum industries also have been started.

Kuwait also provides significant economic assistance to other Arab states. A state agency, the Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development, makes loans for development projects; and the government has provided additional loans and grants to Arab countries from its general reserves.

EDUCATION: Education at all stages is free, as are books, supplies, meals, and other services connected with schooling. Education is compulsory for all children 4 to 16 years of age. The literacy rate is about 50 percent. Government scholarships are provided for secondary-school graduates to attend universities abroad. The University of Kuwait opened in 1966.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: February 25, National Day, marks the accession of the Amir.

LEBANON

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Lebanon--a small country about 120 miles long and 35 miles wide lying on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean--is bordered on the north and east by Syria and on its short southern boundary by Israel. It covers an area of 4,015 square miles, nearly the size of Connecticut.

Lebanon today is really Greater Lebanon, created by the French in 1920. Besides the traditional Mount Lebanon area, it includes Sidon, Beirut, and Tripoli (formerly within the Ottoman Empire's Vilayet of Beirut) and the Beka Valley (formerly a part of the Vilayet of Syria).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Mount Lebanon area is rugged and marked with several deep valleys, a fact which has made the mountainous region a natural fortress and which permitted some minorities to maintain considerable autonomy until recent years. The Beka Valley is an area of fertile, flat land, flanked on the east by the Anti-Lebanon range. The Litani River is the principal one of Lebanon.

Lebanon has often been referred to as the Switzerland of the Middle East, for its climate, snow-capped mountains, picturesque countryside, and beautiful flowers have long attracted tourists. Temperatures along the coast are warm and humid in summer, cool and damp in winter. Summer in the mountains is cool and pleasant; winter is excellent for skiing.

CITIES: The capital, Beirut (population 700,000), typifies the country's mixture of Eastern and Western cultures. Mosques, local markets, and ancient housing contrast with modern architecture, modern hotels, the latest Western automobiles, and modern appliances, like refrigerators and air-conditioners. Tripoli, in the north, is a thriving port and is well-known for its historical monuments. Sidon and Tyre are the sites of ancient Phoenician ports. Baalbek is renowned for its ancient ruins.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 2.6 million Lebanese are Arabs, but in religion they are evenly divided between Moslem and Christian, each in turn subdivided into various sects. Non-Arab groups include a substantial number of Armenians (Christians) and a small number of Jews. Arabic is the official language, but French and English are also widely spoken, particularly by urban dwellers.

MODERN HISTORY: For 400 years before World War I, Lebanon was a part of the Ottoman Empire. An Anglo-French force took the country in 1918, and in 1920 France was granted a mandate over Syria, which included Mount Lebanon. The French separated Lebanon from Syria and included many areas not a part of traditional Mount Lebanon. This action added to Lebanon a Moslem population almost as large as the Christian. Anglo-Free French forces occupied Lebanon during World War II. Independence was granted in 1941, but was not effected until the end of the war in 1945.

A civil war broke out in 1958 over President Shamun's intention to seek a second term as president. Following the coup in Iraq in July of that year, and at the request of the Shamun government, United States troops were landed in the country. An eventual political settlement was worked out, and American troops withdrew.

GOVERNMENT: The independent Republic of Lebanon is headed by a president, who is elected by the legislature for a six-year term. The country's prime minister is chosen by the president but is responsible to the legislature. The unicameral legislature is elected for four years by universal adult suffrage, and electoral law specifies the religion of the deputies from each district. According to an unofficial agreement, dating back to the French mandate, the president is a Christian and the prime minister a Moslem.

ECONOMY: About half the Lebanese people are engaged in agriculture. Because of successive levels of terrain and an abundance of water, a wide variety of crops can be grown, including bananas, citrus fruits, olives, and figs. Fruit, grains, and tobacco are the chief crops. Lebanon does not possess much mineral wealth, but the country is important to the oil industry because two pipelines traverse its territory. Manufacturing has been developing in recent years, and capital investments have increased considerably since World War II. Small tradesmen and shopowners are important in the cities, and Beirut is the banking and financial center for much of the Middle East. Lebanon has a free enterprise economy and banking secrecy laws. Income from tourism is extremely important, and the Lebanese also profit from the transit of trade and remittances from emigrants. In the field of economic development, many schemes are envisioned by the Lebanese government, including the Litani River Development Project, intended to supply the country's electric power needs and expand the area of irrigated land.

EDUCATION: Lebanon enjoys the highest literacy rate in the Arab world (86 percent) and has a well-established system of public elementary education. The country's educational development began during the nineteenth century, when French and American missionaries established schools there. The University of St. Joseph was founded by the French in 1875, and The American University of Beirut was established in 1866. The latter has become a major center for higher learning in the Middle East. In 1951 a Lebanese National University was organized to concentrate on teacher training.

HOLIDAYS: Independence Day, November 22, is celebrated as a national holiday. Christian holy days are observed, as well as Moslem religious holidays.

MUSCAT AND OMAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: A small country on the southeastern tip of the Arabian peninsula, Muscat and Oman has an estimated area of 82,000 square miles--about the size of Kansas. Its border with Saudi Arabia in the region of the Empty Quarter (a desert) has never been agreed upon officially. The country also borders Southern Yemen to the south. The northernmost part of the country--the barren, rocky Musandam Peninsula--is separated from the rest of the country by the Trucial States.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Southwest of the Musandam Peninsula, a low coastal plain stretches for about 1,000 miles along the Persian Gulf and the Arabian Sea. It rises to a plateau about 1,000 feet above sea level. Most farming is done in the fertile Al Batinah area, which stretches about 200 miles along the Gulf of Oman.

The mountain range of Al Hajar stands south of Al Batinah. Mount Sham (10,400 feet), part of Al Hajar, is the country's highest point. The central Az Zahirah plateau is dry and mostly uncultivated. The fertile Dhofar region lies in the southwest corner of the country.

Muscat and Oman is one of the hottest countries in the world. Temperatures sometimes reach 130 degrees. Only a few places get more than six inches of rain a year. Much of the inland part of the country is desolate land where nothing grows.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 570,000 people (1969 estimate) are Arabs who belong to the Ibadite sect of Islam; some are members of the Sunni Moslem sect. Many Negroes, Indians, and Baluchis (descendants of immigrants from Baluchistan, Pakistan) live in the coastal towns. Members of the primitive Shuhuh tribe occupy the Musandam Peninsula living in caves and existing mainly on fish.

Most of the people farm or work on large date and coconut plantations. A few are fishermen or work for cattle and camel breeders. The people live in tents or houses of mud or stone walls with flat roofs. Men wear flowing white robes and headdresses to shield them from the sun and sand. Women wear long, black dresses and veils.

CITIES: The city of Muscat (population 5,080) is the capital and lies on the Muscat Bay of the Gulf of Oman. Rugged mountains separate it from the interior of the peninsula. The city is the administrative center and the home of the sultan and the British consul. Muscat is important because of its location at the entrance to the Persian Gulf.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Portuguese forces captured Muscat and Oman in the early sixteenth century, but local Arabs expelled them in the mid-1600's and later took over other Portuguese possessions in East Africa. The present sultan's family came to power in 1743. In 1798 the British signed an agreement with the sultan and have maintained close relations ever since. In the nineteenth century heirs to the sultanate formed Muscat and Oman as it is known today. In 1913 a newly elected imam acquired governing powers in the interior. The present imam headed resistance against the sultan in 1955 and 1957. When the sultan's forces defeated those of the imam in 1959, the imam fled into exile.

GOVERNMENT: A sultan governs with the aid of a five-man council he appoints. Some people living in the mountains and other inland areas support the imam, their Islamic religious leader, rather than the sultan. Walis are in charge of local government units.

ECONOMY: Oases along the northern coast produce dates, limes, and pomegranates. Coconuts grow on the southern coast. Oman camels are bred throughout the country. The most important exports are dates and hides. Oil was discovered in the country in 1963, but production did not start until the late 1960's.

The country has little industry, no railroads, few roads, and only one important airport.

PERSIAN GULF SHEIKDOMS

These are British-protected states on the Persian Gulf which have treaties giving Britain responsibility for their foreign relations. Britain has announced plans to withdraw its military forces from the Persian Gulf area by 1971. In July 1968 the rulers of Bahrain, Qatar, and the seven Trucial Sheikdoms agreed on forming a federation which would have a common currency, postal system, flag and anthem, a High Council of sheiks, and a federal council of notables to be named by the sheiks.

BAHRAIN

LOCATION AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Bahrain consists of the main island of Bahrain and the nearby islands of Muharraq, Sitra, and Umm Nasan--all halfway down the Persian Gulf. The largest of this archipelago of small, low-lying islands--Bahrain--is 30 miles long and 10 miles wide. It lies about 15 miles off the coast of Saudi Arabia. The island--240 square miles in area--has an interior plateau 100 to 200 feet high with a hill rising to 445 feet, the highest point in any of the islands. Bahrain is connected with Muharraq by a causeway 1-3/4 miles long and with Sitra by a shallow strait that is dry at low tide. The climate is humid and hot during much of the year. Daytime temperatures regularly reach 106 degrees. Rainfall averages less than four inches annually.

CITIES: Manama and Muharraz, the two main cities, contain about two thirds of the population.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population is estimated at 195,000. The indigenous population is of northern Arabian (Adnani) stock, with considerable infusion of Negro blood. They are divided about equally between adherents of the Sunni sect of Islam, which predominates in the urban centers, and the Shi'a sect, to which most villagers and rural inhabitants belong.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Bahrain was occupied by Portugal in the sixteenth century and by Persia (Iran) in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Since the late eighteenth century, Bahrain has been governed by the Khalifa family, who signed the first treaty with the British in 1820. A binding treaty of protection was concluded in 1861--and further revised in 1892 and 1951.

GOVERNMENT: The ruler--Shaikh Isa ibn Salman al-Khalifa--wields almost absolute power although tribal customs of consultation and participation in government somewhat lessen his authority. From 1926 to 1957 local affairs were largely under the direction of a British official appointed by the ruler. This essentially one-man government was replaced in 1956 by an administrative council appointed by the ruler (it now has 10 members).

ECONOMY: Bahrain has the second largest refinery in the Middle East--processing about 135,000 barrels a day of crude oil from Saudi Arabia. The Bahrain Oil Company is owned by Standard Oil Company of California and Texaco.

QATAR

LOCATION AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: An Arab sheikdom on a low, sun-baked peninsula jutting into the Persian Gulf from the eastern side of Saudi Arabia, Qatar covers about 8,500 square miles. Its exact size is unknown because Qatar and neighboring Saudi Arabia disagree on the borderline. Qatar is an unusually barren desert, consisting of nearly flat limestone with a little sand on top. It has an average rainfall of less than four inches.

CITIES: Doha--built around a harbor on the east coast--is the capital (population around 45,000) and the leading commercial center.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population of 80,000 is largely Arab in origin. About half are indigenous Qataris and the rest are immigrants, chiefly Arabs. The people are mainly Sunni Muslims of the Wahabi sect. Arabic is the predominant language.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The reign of the Khalifa family of Bahrain ended with Turkish occupation in 1872. When the Ottoman Turks evacuated the peninsula at the beginning of World War I, the British recognized Shaikh Abdullah ibn Jasim al-Thani, whose family had resided in Qatar for two centuries as ruler. A treaty of protection was concluded in 1916 between Great Britain and Shaikh Abdullah--a 1934 treaty further expanded the relationship.

GOVERNMENT: All internal authority flows from the ruler. In 1951 a British adviser and a British commandant of police were appointed. A 1, 000-man police force maintains law and order. There is no legislature and no political parties.

ECONOMY: In 1935 a 75-year oil concession was granted to the Qatar Petroleum Company, a subsidiary of the Iraq Petroleum Company. High-quality oil was discovered at Dukhan in 1940. Oil now provides Qatar with an income estimated at more than $70 million per year.

Traditional occupations have included pearling, fishing, and nomadic herding. Pearling--now all but abandoned--was an important source of income until the development of cultured pearls by Japanese in the 1930's.

EDUCATION: Free education and health services are provided. Education is compulsory for Qatari children between ages 6 and 16; two or three new schools are being built each year. Teachers must be imported and are mainly Egyptians.

TRUCIAL SHEIKDOMS

LOCATION AND SIZE: The seven Trucial Sheikdoms occupy approximately 32, 000 square miles along a 400-mile strip from the base of the Qatar Peninsula to Muscat and Oman. The region is also known variously as the Trucial States, Trucial Oman, or the Trucial Coast.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Trucial Sheikdoms has a hot, dry desert climate; temperatures sometimes reach 140 degrees. Most of the region is low and flat, but hills cover the eastern part. At its eastern end are the Western Hajar Mountains, actually part of the same mountain range that parallels the easternmost coast of the Arabian Peninsula. In the eastern mountains the climate is cooler and has enough rainfall to permit some cultivation.

CITIES: The leading city and main commercial port is Dubayy (population 65, 000). Population is concentrated in the 15 or 20 small towns along the coast and a few inland oasis villages.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 10 percent of the 152, 000 inhabitants are nomads. Most of the people earn a living fishing. Some dive for pearls. About 80 percent are Arab--most of whom belong to the Sunni sect of Islam. Various minority groups (principally Iranians, Baluchis, and Indians) live in the towns along the coast. Arabic is the predominant language.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The Trucial Coast was originally known as the Pirate Coast. Lawlessness in the Persian Gulf reached its height at the beginning of the nineteenth century. British expeditions against the pirates led in 1820 to a general treaty of peace; in 1853 the coastal sheiks agreed to a perpetual maritime truce.

GOVERNMENT: Although a city council has been established in Dubayy, the prevailing form of government follows the traditional tribal pattern. There is no administrative machinery in the Western sense. Each of the Trucial States is headed by a ruler who enjoys considerable autonomy in domestic affairs. Legislation is issued by decree.

Internal security and defense of the area as a whole are entrusted to the British-officered Trucial Oman Scouts--an Arab force of about 1, 500 established in 1951.

A British agent advises the sheiks on foreign and domestic affairs.

ECONOMY: The leading farm products include dates and tobacco. In 1950 petroleum was discovered near Abu Zaby, which emerged as the wealthiest of the sheikdoms when oil exports began in 1962. Several companies now hold oil concessions in the area.

EDUCATION: Since 1955 the British government has granted money to the Trucial Coast Development Fund, agricultural school, and health projects. The fund's budget--about $650, 000 annually--has been supplemented by grants from other Arab countries.

Kuwaiti government grants extended through the Gulf Permanent Assistance Committee have financed 45 schools and 8 clinics since 1962 in the six poorer Trucial States.

SAUDI ARABIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia occupies the bulk of the Arabian Peninsula between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. The country is bordered by Jordan and Iraq on the north; has Kuwait, Qatar, and Trucial Oman as neighbors along the Persian Gulf; is flanked on the south by the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman, the South Arabian Federation, and the Yemen Republic; and is bounded on the west by the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aqaba. Since many of the boundaries within the Peninsula are still ill-defined, it is not possible to provide a precise delineation of Saudi Arabian territory. The total area of the Peninsula, however, is about 900, 000 square miles, nearly one-fourth the size of the United States.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Saudi Arabia consists primarily of a large plateau, highest in the west and sloping gradually toward the east, where the terrain becomes very low and flat along the Persian Gulf. The plateau is broken by the Mountains of the Hijaz in the northwest and other ranges near the Red Sea. Most of the land is desert, the most famous desert region being the Empty Quarter in the south (nearly one-quarter of a million square miles). Temperatures are high throughout the year and reach well over 100 degrees in the summer months. The intense heat is combined with high humidity along the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Summer winds bring frequent sandstorms throughout the Peninsula.

CITIES: Riyadh, in the interior, is the political capital of the country. The diplomatic capital is Jiddah, a port on the Red Sea. Mecca and Medina are the holy cities of Islam and are forbidden to non-Moslems. Mecca is the site of the Ka'aba and attracts many thousands of pilgrims annually. The Dhahran complex near the Persian Gulf is the petroleum center of Saudi Arabia and has a large American community. It is also the location of a strategically important airfield constructed by the United States.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Population estimates vary between 3. 2 million and 7 million, with 4 million probably being the most reliable figure. About half of the population inhabit oases and till the soil. The rest are nomadic Bedouin (who claim to be of purer Arab stock than the others), employees of the oil industry, and inhabitants of rapidly growing cities and towns.

Most of the country's people are Sunni Moslems, who observe the practices of their religion with Wahhabi strictness. Alcoholic beverages, tobacco, and dancing are forbidden. Moslem women in Arabia still wear veils and are more secluded than anywhere else in the Middle East. Arabic is the official language, and English now is taught in the schools.

MODERN HISTORY: The present state of Saudi Arabia was created under the leadership of 'Abd-al-'Aziz ibn Sa'ud, known in the West by his family name--ibn Sa'ud. By driving the ibn Rashid garrison out of Riyadh in 1902 and defeating the Rashids decisively in 1906, he regained for the Saudis control of the Najd, the central region of the peninsula. In a series of subsequent encounters, he and his fellow tribesmen gained control of al-Hasa (1913) to the east, 'Asir (1920) and the Hijaz (1925) to the west. The British, who had been exercising control over Saudi foreign relations since 1915, acknowledged Saudi control of these territories in a treaty of May 1927. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was formally proclaimed in 1932. Ibn Saud remained friendly to the Allies during World War II. He died in 1953 and was succeeded by one of his sons, King Saud, who reigned until 1964.

GOVERNMENT: The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is essentially an absolute monarchy. Governmental authority is exercised by the King and his appointed ministers and officials. The King is also the supreme religious leader of the country.

During the reign of King Saud, 1954-64, his younger brother, Crown Prince Faisal, gained increasing power and sought to modernize the state. Faisal directed governmental affairs from 1958 to 1960 and returned as prime minister in October 1962. In November 1964 he was proclaimed King in place of the ailing Saud.

King Faisal acts as his own prime minister and foreign minister. He governs in consultation with the Council of Ministers, who have broad administrative functions. There is no institution for popular participation in the processes of government.

ECONOMY: Except for the production and sale of oil, the economy of Saudi Arabia is agricultural and, by Western standards, primitive. Livestock raising (sheep, goats, camels, and horses) and production of basic food crops (dates, millet, wheat, and rice) were the mainstays before the discovery of oil. The chief source of revenue was a tax imposed on pilgrims to Mecca.

The first oil concession was granted to the Standard Oil Company of California in 1933. Operations are in the hands of the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO), Getty Oil Company, and Arabian Oil Company, Ltd. Production is valued at over $1.1 billion annually, about 7 percent of the world output.

Recent fiscal reforms have enabled the government to earmark a larger portion of petroleum revenues for economic development. Road-building, water-development, and agricultural projects are being encouraged, along with surveys of soil and subsoil resources. There are plans for a combined water-desalting and electric power plant near Jiddah and for a land-development scheme in the east to settle the Bedouin on small holdings. Closed-circuit television stations have been opened in Riyadh and Jiddah.

EDUCATION: Education is free but not compulsory at all levels, and the government support amounts to about 10 percent of its budget. Government allocations for school construction, teacher-training programs, and other phases of educational development have increased sharply since the Ministry of Education was created in 1954. The modern Saudi Arabian educational system is based on the American system and follows the 6-3-3 pattern.

Riyadh University was founded in 1957. The College of Petroleum and Minerals, opened at Dhahran in 1964, is an autonomous institution attached to the Ministry of Petroleum and Mineral Resources and has substantial American participation. Riyadh College of Engineering was founded in 1962 with staff provided by UNESCO.

HOLIDAYS: September 23, the official national day, celebrates unification of the kingdom. Other holidays are religious in nature, associated with Islam.

SOUTHERN YEMEN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Southern Yemen lies on the southwestern end of the Arabian Peninsula and has an estimated area of 112,000 square miles. It was formed by joining the British-administered state of Aden, the Federation of South Arabia, the Protectorate of South Arabia, and three islands in the Red Sea.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The barren land of Southern Yemen consists of a narrow, sandy, coastal plain and a mountain-rimmed inland plateau. A vast desert begins in the northeast and extends into Saudi Arabia. The climate, both inland and on the coast, is extraordinarily hot, with summer temperatures exceeding 130 degrees.

CITIES: Madinat ash Sha'b (formerly al-Ittihad) is the capital. Aden, a port city (population 210,000), has a large foreign population and a strong trade union movement. One of the cities mentioned in the Bible, Aden has been a port for the trade in incense, spices, and silk between the East and West for two millenia.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 90 percent of the country's over 1.2 million people are Moslem Arabs. Indians, Pakistanis, and Somalis are the leading minorities. Arabic is the official language; English is widely understood. In the Mahra area, in the extreme east, several languages unrelated to modern Arabic are spoken.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: British rule began in 1839 when the British East India Company seized control to put an end to the piracy threatening trade with India. Aden provided Britain with a controlling position at the southern entrance to the Red Sea and became a strategic outpost of the Empire in the East. The British-administered territories gained independence as Southern Yemen on November 30, 1967.

GOVERNMENT: Southern Yemen is a revolutionary republic ruled by a president and a council of ministers. The National Liberation Front is the only political organization.

ECONOMY: Farmers use irrigation in a few places in river valleys to raise barley, dates, and wheat; but oil exported through Aden provides most of the country's income.

In addition to refined petroleum products, the main exports from Aden and the rest of Southern Yemen are cotton, cottonseed, gum, salt, hides and skins, and coffee--the last two are primarily reexports from Yemen. Major imports are basic foodstuffs, building materials, automobiles, and machinery.

The recent disappearance of the tourist trade, the closing of the Suez Canal, the loss of income from the former British military base, and the decline of bunkering and related services have dealt a sharp blow to the economy.

SYRIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Syria has a short coastline on the eastern Mediterranean and land borders with Turkey, Iraq, Lebanon, Jordan, and Israel. Covering an area of roughly 72,000 square miles, Syria is slightly larger than Oklahoma.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Syrian landscape is varied, with two massive mountain ranges, the Chab marshes, the great Syrian Desert, and rich farmland. Four important rivers flow through the country: the Barada in the Damascus area, the Orontes in the northwest, and the Euphrates and its tributary the Khabur in the east. Along the coast the weather is mild and humid, but in the interior summers are hot and dry. Snow falls on the mountains in winter. Rainfall averages below 10 inches a year in a large part of the country.

CITIES: Damascus, the capital, in the southwest, has a population of more than 500,000. Said to be the oldest continuously inhabited city in the world, it contains such historic sites as the Omayyad Mosque, the Biblical "Street called Straight," the market street of Hamidiya, and the wall where St. Paul was let down in a basket. The modern quarter of Damascus is considered one of the most up-to-date and attractive areas in the Middle East. Aleppo, a northern trading and agricultural center, has a population about as large as Damascus. Homs and Hama on the Orontes and the port of Latakia are the other chief cities.

RELIGION AND LANGUAGE: Eighty-seven percent of Syria's 5.8 million people are Arabic-speaking Moslems. Over one-third of the people live in cities. French and English are spoken by some of the urban dwellers. Thirteen percent of the people are Christians, including about 120,000 Armenians.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Syrian nationalism developed under Ottoman rule and was strong for many years before and during World War I. After the war, however, the country was placed under French mandate. The Syrians resented French domination and continued to work for independence until it was finally won, with British help, in April 1946. Following the unsuccessful war against Israel in 1948-49, the Syrian republic was governed by a series of military dictators until civilian rule was restored in 1954. In February 1958 Syria merged with Egypt in the United Arab Republic.

Syria seceded from the United Arab Republic as a result of a military coup in Damascus on September 28, 1961, and reestablished itself as an independent state (Syrian Arab Republic). There followed a period of political turmoil, with army factions, Nasserist supporters, conservatives, and socialists vying for power.

GOVERNMENT: In March 1963, leftist elements in the army overthrew the constitutional government and installed a cabinet dominated by members of the Baath Party, a socialist party dedicated to revolution in all parts of the Arab world. The government was led by elder statesmen of the Baath Party until February 1966, when a military coup transferred power to a younger group of Baathists.

ECONOMY: Syria is one of the few Arab countries with adequate arable land for its population. Farming is the principal economic activity, and there has long been a large tenant-farmer class. The chief crops are wheat, barley, vegetables, fruit, and cotton--the latter being Syria's leading export item. Development of mechanized farming in the Jazirah region of the northeast has increased the area under cultivation, and plans have been made for a rail link to connect this region with the population centers and markets in western Syria.

The main possibilities for agricultural expansion depend on irrigation. The government has undertaken irrigation and drainage projects along the Orontes and has made ambitious plans for a dam on the Euphrates. A land reform program has been started. Royalties from oil pipelines passing through Syria's territory contribute about $55 million annually to the country's foreign exchange earnings. Tourism is also a major source of income.

EDUCATION: General education is provided on the 6-3-3 plan and is compulsory through the six-year elementary program. There are two centers of higher education: the University of Damascus, founded in 1919, and the University of Aleppo, organized in 1958.

HOLIDAY: April 17, Evacuation Day, celebrates the French withdrawal in 1946.

TURKEY

LOCATION: The Republic of Turkey occupies the southeastern tip of Europe and the entire Asia Minor peninsula, lying across the Black Sea from the Soviet Union, across the Aegean Sea from peninsular Greece, and across the Mediterranean from Egypt. The system of straits (Bosporus, Sea of Marmara, Dardanelles) which separate Turkey in Europe from Turkey in Asia provides the only water passage from the Soviet Union to the Mediterranean. In the west, Turkey has land frontiers with Greece and Bulgaria; in the east, it borders the Soviet Union and Iran; in the southeast, it fronts on Iraq and Syria.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: With a land area of almost 300,000 square miles, Turkey is about the size of Texas and Louisiana combined. The bulk of its territory is in the Asia Minor area, where the dominant land form is the high Anatolian plateau, broken by a series of rugged mountain ranges. The highest mountains lie in the easternmost part of the country, bordering the U.S.S.R., Iran, and Iraq. Here in the east rises Turkey's highest peak, Mt. Ararat, nearly 17,000 feet in elevation. Summers on the central plateau are usually hot and dry, winters tend to be cold, and the arid climate leaves much of the plateau region treeless. Along the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts, however, are fertile lowlands, with a climate comparable to that of Florida.

CITIES: Ankara, situated on the Anatolian plateau, has a climate resembling that of Kansas City. Ankara, which became the capital of Turkey during the period of Kemal Ataturk following World War I, has grown greatly in the last 40 years and now has a population of around one million. The modern section of the city has Western-style buildings, tree-lined boulevards, and growing industry. The old section contains many historical ruins, some dating back to the ancient Hittite civilization. Turkey's largest city is Istanbul (historic Constantinople), which lies on the European side of the Bosporus and contains a cosmopolitan population of about 2 million. Both European and Asiatic in its orientation, Istanbul is famous for its Byzantine architecture and historic mosques. Sancta Sophia, originally a Byzantine church and later a mosque, is now officially a museum. Other major cities, with populations over 100,000, are Izmir (historic Smyrna), Adana, Bursa, and Eskisehir. About one out of every four Turks now lives in a city or large town. The rest live mainly in rural village communities.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Turkey's estimated 32.7 million citizens are of Turkish nationality. Ethnic minorities, classified by native tongue, include the Kurds in eastern Turkey and smaller numbers of Arabs, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. Nearly all Turks are Moslems, as are the Kurds and Arabs. Turkish is the official language. English, French, and German are taught in public secondary schools.

MODERN HISTORY: The Turks originally came from Central Asia and long were the dominant people in the Ottoman Empire. At the peak of its power in the sixteenth century, this empire controlled most of the Balkans, the Middle East to Persia, and a large part of North Africa. When the Ottoman Empire finally disintegrated at the close of World War I, modern nationalists rallied the Turkish population in the Asia Minor area to prevent partitioning of the area among various European allied powers. After a series of military operations, the Turkish nationalists consolidated what is now modern Turkey and proclaimed it a republic in 1923.

Leader of the nationalist forces and first president of the Turkish republic was Kemal Ataturk. During the 1920's and 1930's Ataturk and his colleagues introduced radical reforms designed to modernize Turkey along Western lines. Church and state were separated, Western-type law codes were introduced, a new Latin alphabet was adopted for the Turkish language to replace the Arabic script, traditional forms of dress were outlawed, women were granted full legal equality, and a program of agricultural and industrial development was inaugurated. The full effects of these reforms have yet to be felt in the Turkish countryside, but Turkey remains a pioneer among Moslem lands in the adoption of modern ways.

GOVERNMENT: On May 27, 1960, the Turkish army, led by Lt. Gen. Cemal Gursel, overthrew the government of President Bayar and Premier Menderes. Parliament was dissolved, and a provisional regime was organized under General Gursel. Editors and students imprisoned by the Menderes regime were released; former officials were arrested and brought to trial on charges of corruption and unconstitutional activities.

A new constitution was approved in a nationwide referendum on July 9, 1961, and took effect the following October. It provides for a two-chamber parliament, with members elected according to a system of proportional representation. Executive power is vested in a cabinet led by the prime minister and responsible to parliament. The president of the republic is elected by parliament; he serves as head of state and appoints the prime minister.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is still the mainstay of Turkey's economy, engaging about three-fourths of the working population, contributing about half of the national income, and supplying 90 percent of the country's exports. In the semiarid interior, winter wheat is the primary crop, grown largely on small holdings by peasant villagers. In the more fertile and climatically favored coastal regions, crops of figs, olives, grapes (raisins), and cotton are produced for export. Tobacco, grown largely in the Aegean region, is the leading export crop and is controlled by a government monopoly.

Turkey has a variety of mineral resources in varying stages of development. Bituminous coal and iron ore are mined in substantial quantity, oil output has increased in recent years, some copper is produced for export, and the country is one of the world's largest suppliers of chrome ore. Manufacturing has greatly expanded since the end of World War II. Many new factories have been constructed, and many different goods are now produced in addition to such basic items as cement, beet sugar, and textiles. Turkey's first integrated steel complex, the Eregli Mill, began rolling operations in 1965.

In attempting to speed economic development, Turkey has encountered serious balance of payment difficulties. Exports have not substantially increased; and to purchase the machinery, oil, and other products required for industrial and urban development, Turkey has gone heavily into debt to Western creditors. The United States has been the chief source of economic assistance, but many European states also have granted Turkey liberal credit. The per capita income in Turkey is about $300 per year.

EDUCATION: Education is compulsory through five grades of primary school and is free in public institutions through the university level. Over half of Turkey's numerous villages now have a primary school. Progress also is being made in expanding urban secondary schools and trade schools, as well as village institutes for training rural leaders and teachers. There are seven universities (in Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Erzurum, and Trabzon). Among the newest are the Middle East Technical University (Ankara), organized with UN and UNESCO assistance, and the Ataturk University (Erzurum), established in cooperation with the University of Nebraska. The oldest American college abroad is in Istanbul--Robert College, founded 1863.

HOLIDAYS: October 29 is celebrated as Republic Day (Bahram), marking the declaration of the Turkish republic. There are various other national holidays, as well as religious observances and festivities of Islam.

FOOD: Bread is the staple food in Turkey; lamb the chief meat. Distinctive dishes include vegetables stuffed with rice, pinenuts, currants, and meat; yogurt; pilaf (buttered and steamed rice); and baklava (pastry). Coffee is served strong, and tea is also widely consumed. Most Turks observe the Islamic prohibition against eating pork, and some observe their religion's ban on alcoholic drinks.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS: Turkey has been a member of NATO since 1952. It also is a leading member of CENTO (Central Treaty Organization), whose other members are Pakistan, Iran, and Great Britain and whose headquarters are now in Ankara.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

LOCATION: Egypt, now called the United Arab Republic, lies in the northeast corner of Africa opposite the Arabian peninsula. It covers an area of 386,100 square miles. Its neighbors are Israel to the east, Libya to the west, Sudan to the south.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Territorially, Egypt is roughly equal in size to Texas and New Mexico combined, but about 96 percent of its area is desert. Summers are hot and humid in the Nile River region; winters are mild. The average rainfall varies between one and eight inches.

The Suez Canal--103 miles long--links the Mediterranean and the Red Sea and was formally opened November 17, 1869. The British bought control of it in 1875. The withdrawal of the last British troops in mid-1956 was followed by Egyptian nationalization of the Canal. At the height of the 1967 Israeli-Arab war Cairo closed the Canal to all shipping. The closure of the Canal--now a battlefront area--has forced a shift of Egypt's economy away from the Canal and toward the western part of the country.

CITIES: About 20 percent of the population live in cities. Cairo, the capital, has over 4.1 million people and is the largest city in the Arab world and Africa. It is a city of many contrasts, a mixture of ancient and modern ways of life. Well-known for its museums, Islamic sites, and nearby pyramids, Cairo is most important as an educational, cultural, and industrial center. Its influence in other parts of the Arab world is enhanced by Radio Cairo, broadcasting in 17 different languages, and by the export of Arabic films. Other major Egyptian cities include Alexandria, an ancient but modernized Mediterranean port; Port Said, on the Mediterranean at the head of the Suez Canal; Suez, at the southern terminal of the Canal; and Assyut, an inland city up the Nile in central Egypt.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Egypt's 32 million people are concentrated in the fertile strip of land along the Nile River, creating a population density of 2,370 persons per square mile, one of the highest in the world. Over 92 percent of Egypt's people are Sunni Moslems; another 7 percent are Coptic Christians of ancient Egyptian lineage. Several hundred thousand people of Greek, Italian, and Armenian descent--all Christians--live in Alexandria, Cairo, and Port Said. There also is a small Jewish community, although many Jews left the country in late 1956. Arabic is the official language. English and French are widely spoken among middle- and upper-class city dwellers.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: A flourishing civilization developed under the Egyptian Pharaohs nearly 6,000 years ago. Subsequently, Egypt experienced a long period of foreign domination, which began in 525 B.C. with the Persian conquest and lasted until recent times. Britain, the last foreign power to control Egypt, proclaimed the country independent in 1922 but maintained a large military base in the Suez Canal zone until after World War II.

Politically, Egypt has been profoundly affected by its 1948-49 war with Israel. Border incidents between Egyptian guerillas and Israeli patrols increased after the Egyptian-Soviet arms deal of September 1955 and Egyptian nationalization of the Canal in July 1956. During October 1956, Israel's armed forces invaded Egypt's Sinai Peninsula and the Gaza Strip. The Israeli invasion was soon followed by a joint Anglo-French military operation against Egypt to protect their interests in the Canal. A world crisis was precipitated, but ended when the invading forces of all three countries withdrew from Egypt as a result of United Nations' and United States' pressure. After the Israelis withdrew from Sinai and Gaza, strategic points were manned by troops of the UN Emergency Force (UNEF).

UNEF guarded the 117-mile-long border between Egypt and Israel until May 19, 1967, when the Force was withdrawn at Nasser's demand. The Egyptians quickly reoccupied the Gaza Strip and the heights of Sharm el Sheikh and three days later closed the Strait of Tiran leading into the Gulf of Aqaba to all Israeli shipping. Full-scale war broke out June 5 and ended five days later. Israel had captured Gaza and the Sinai Peninsula, controlled the east bank of the Suez Canal, and reopened the Gulf. Border hostilities between the two countries began to increase again in March 1968.

GOVERNMENT: The Egyptian monarchy was overthrown in July 1952 when a group of young army officers ousted King Farouk II. A republic was proclaimed the following year, with General Naguib as its first president. In 1954 Gamal Abdel Nasser, the leader of the revolt against Farouk, replaced Naguib as president. Four years later, Syria merged with Nasser's Egypt to form the United Arab Republic. When Syria seceded from the U. A. R. in September 1961, the name United Arab Republic was retained by Egypt.

Two parliaments were created and dissolved in the first decade of the republic. The National Assembly (360 members) was formed in March 1964. That same month President Nasser announced a new provisional constitution, which was to remain in effect pending adoption of a permanent constitution. Under the 1964 provisional constitution, the Assembly has sole authority to initiate legislation while it is in session, but the President holds the right of veto. Executive authority rests with President Nasser, who appoints the cabinet minister and other ranking officials. A national plebescite in March 1965 confirmed Nasser as president for a six-year term. Political parties have been banned, except for the Arab Socialist Union, a state party founded in 1962 to mobilize mass support for the regime.

ECONOMY: Around 80 percent of Egypt's people are peasants (fellahin), living for the most part in poverty. Community development projects and, more recently, a land reform program have been introduced for their benefit. Wheat and corn are the main crops grown for domestic consumption, but Egypt nonetheless must import a large amount of wheat each year to sustain the growing population. Egypt is one of the world's top producers of cotton; this crop accounts for the bulk of its exports. Rice is grown mainly for export. The most extensive scheme for the reclamation and irrigation of lands is the High Aswan Dam project, the first stage of which got under way in January 1960 with Soviet financial and technical assistance. It is scheduled for completion in 1970.

Nonagricultural activities account for about 65 percent of Egypt's gross national product. There is growing oil production along the Red Sea coast and in Sinai, with further exploration in process. In 1969, $130 million was earmarked for the proposed Suez-to-Alexandria oil pipeline, designed to bypass the Suez Canal with Middle Eastern oil. Commercial quantities of manganese, phosphate, and asbestos are produced. Industrial activity is mainly in textiles, food and tobacco processing, chemicals, and fertilizers; a government-financed steel mill was completed in 1959. Banks, insurance companies, and most business firms in Egypt have been nationalized.

EDUCATION: Extensive efforts are being made to create effective literacy (estimated at 35 percent) by providing six years of compulsory primary schooling for all children. Since 1952 grade school attendance has risen from 40 percent to 90 percent. There are--in addition to the Islamic center of Al Azhar--four state universities: Cairo, Alexandria, Ain Shams (Heliopolis), and Assyut. There is also the American University at Cairo, founded in 1919.

HOLIDAYS: July 23 is celebrated as the country's National Day, marking the overthrow of King Farouk in 1952 and the beginning of the present revolutionary regime. Holy occasions and festivities of Islam also are observed.

YEMEN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Yemen--a country in the southwestern corner of the Arabian Peninsula--covers an area of 75,290 miles (about the size of South Dakota). It borders on the Red Sea on the southwest, Saudi Arabia on the north, and Southern Yemen on the southeast.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Yemen has three land regions: a coastal plain, a cliff region, and a high interior. A long, narrow plain called the Tihama extends inland from the Red Sea for 20 to 50 miles. The Tihama is hot and very humid, but receives less than 10 inches of rain a year; temperatures range from 68 degrees to 130 degrees. Few people live there.

A few rocky hills border the Tihama on the east. Then cliffs rise steeply. The cliffs get as much as 30 inches of rain a year. The rains have cut into the cliffs forming short, steep valleys.

East of the cliffs is the fertile high interior (the High Yemen), the most beautiful and best cultivated part of Arabia. Broad valleys and plateaus lie 6,000 feet above sea level surrounded by steep mountains that rise as high as 12,336 feet. The high altitude makes the High Yemen much cooler than the Tihama. The average temperature in the High Yemen is in the 60's in January and in the 80's in July. The High Yemen gets 10 to 15 inches of rain a year, mostly during the summer. East of the mountains, the land slopes down to the desert in Saudi Arabia.

CITIES: Sana (population 89,000) is the capital and trading center. It lies about 100 miles from the Red Sea in a fertile district where fruits, vegetables, and some grains grow. Wells provide water for irrigation. A wall with eight gates surrounds the city. Hodeida is a major port on the Red Sea.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 5.2 million people of Yemen are Arabs. The Hashid, Khawlan, and Baqil are the largest and most powerful tribes. The men wear cotton breeches and shirts; the women wear long robes, black shawls, and veils. In the High Yemen, the people build mud or stone houses. In the Tihama, most people live in straw huts. People in the cities often build one-story mud brick houses with flat roofs.

The tribes are divided into two main groups according to their Moslem beliefs. The largest group is the Shiites of the Zaydi sect.

The people of southern Yemen, especially those living in Ta'izz and the Tihama ports, are Sunnites of the Shaf'i sect, which has a powerful merchant class that controls Yemen's commerce. The division between the politically powerful Zaydis and the wealthy Shaf'is has caused bitterness between the groups.

Arabic is the official language.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: According to Arab tradition, Semitic people invaded what is now Yemen about 2000 B.C. and brought farming and building skills to the herdsmen who lived there. About 1400 B.C. an important trade route began forming; caravans loaded with frankincense, pearls, and spices passed through Yemen. Many cities, castles, temples, and dams were built during this time. The Queen of Sheba ruled the Yemeni in the eighth century B.C. A Biblical reference speaks of Yemen's gold, spices, and precious stones as gifts borne by the Queen of Sheba to King Solomon.

Yemen's prosperity ended after the time of Christ. Local chieftains fought among themselves, and Abyssinia (Ethiopia) invaded Yemen. The next 1,300 years were marked by fighting between Yemeni tribes and religious groups, and against invading Egyptians and Turks.

The Ottoman Empire, centered in Turkey, had varying degrees of control over Yemen from 1517 to 1918. The Treaty of Lausanne freed the country from Turkish control in 1924. In 1951 Yemen set up diplomatic relations with Great Britain and received its first European diplomat. From 1958 to 1961 Yemen was federated with the United Arab Republic and had a common armed force and defense policy.

On September 26, 1962, a group of military officers supported by Egypt overthrew the imam. Their leader, Abdullah al-Sallal, became president and set up a republic. Since 1962 the imam's forces have fought from their bases in the mountain regions to try to regain control. They are supported by Saudi Arabia; but the republicans, supported by Egypt, have controlled most of Yemen during the war. In 1967 Abd al Rahman al Iryani took control of the government.

GOVERNMENT: A three-member council (headed by a chairman) and a 17-member cabinet headed by a prime minister) run the government. They rule without a constitution or an assembly.

ECONOMY: Farmers in the hills and highlands raise wheat, barley, and dura (a sorghum). as well as citrus fruits, apricots, bananas, grapes, papayas, and pomegranates. Beans, lentils, onions, and tomatoes are raised in irrigated gardens planted at the edges of towns and villages.

Coffee and qat are the main cash crops. Coffee is a major export, and Yemen is famous for its Mocha coffee. Coffee trees grow on terraces cut into the steep hillsides. Ancient aqueducts carry water to the terraces.

Qat, a woody shrub, grows in the highlands and is probably the main cash crop. Qat leaves contain a narcotic that produces a mild form of intoxication or euphoria when chewed.

Yemen has almost no industry; most goods are handmade. The people have been famous since ancient times for their textiles, leather work, and iron work. They also make rope, glassware, and pottery and sell their goods in village bazaars.

EDUCATION: The Zaydis emphasize education; but schooling is often limited to reading, writing, and studying Moslem law and tradition. Only 5 percent of the population is literate.

ASIA

The area of the world covered in this section includes all the major countries of southern and eastern Asia from Afghanistan to Japan. More than half the world's people live in this vast expanse of nations, and nearly all the major races and religions of mankind are represented among them. Descriptions of Australia, New Zealand, Nauru, and Western Samoa in the South Pacific are grouped with the Asian nations as a matter of editorial convenience.

Important differences exist between the individual countries and regions of Asia in terms of area, population, resources, cultural traditions, and patterns of political, economic, and social development. Their peoples have distinctive records of cultural achievement in centuries past, and they have experienced varying degrees of contact with the modern West. A few Asian countries (e.g., Thailand and Japan) have long been independent states, while the majority have emerged only recently from colonial or semicolonial rule.

Along with much diversity, certain factors and problems are common to most Asian states today. Except for industrialized Japan, all Asian nations have basically agrarian societies, characterized by low standards of living and limited opportunities for individual advancement. Most Asian governments have initiated programs for economic development, but lack of domestic capital, shortage of trained technicians, unsettled political conditions, and other obstacles have made it difficult to carry them out. The most highly organized efforts toward economic development in the past decade have been made by India and Communist China, the former working within a framework of constitutional government, the latter within a framework of total planning and regimentation. In both of these countries, the problem of economic growth has been vastly complicated in recent years by populations that are growing more rapidly than their governments had anticipated.

Another common element is the strong spirit of nationalism, reflected in much antiminority and antiforeign sentiment (e.g., discriminatory action against Chinese tradesmen in Southeast Asia, criticism of U.S. military forces in Japan). In foreign relations, Asian nationalism often expresses itself in policies of nonalignment (a term that Asians prefer to use instead of neutralism). India and Indonesia are among the major exponents of nonalignment, regarding it as a technique for maintaining national independence in the face of cold-war pressures from Western and Communist powers. Even though several Asian governments have joined Western nations in regional or bilateral security pacts (Pakistan, Thailand, the Philippines, Japan, South Korea, Nationalist China), their people are still sensitive to U.S. policies and actions in Asia.

AFGHANISTAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked country about the size of Texas, Afghanistan occupies a strategic position in south-central Asia. On the north Afghanistan borders the Soviet Union for about 1,000 miles, and in the extreme northeast it touches on the Sinkiang region of Communist China. Iran is its neighbor on the west; Pakistan, on the south and east.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Afghanistan's landscape is characterized by rugged mountains, high plateaus, isolated river valleys, and arid desert. Across the center of the country stretch the ranges of Hindu Kush, which take off from the towering Pamirs in the northeast and gradually diminish in height toward the west. Through the eastern ranges are many historic passes leading into the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent. The main road from Afghanistan leads into northwest Pakistan over the famous Khyber Pass. Afghanistan has four major river systems: the Amu Darya (or Oxus), forming most of the country's boundary with the U.S.S.R.; the Kabul in the east, draining into the Indus River; the Hari Rud and Murghab in the west; the Helmand in the south. The last two drain into a desert basin along the southwestern border with Iran.

The weather generally is clear and dry, with seasonal variations between extreme heat and extreme cold, aggravated by strong winds. Climatic conditions are most healthful in the central highlands. Farming and grazing are made possible mainly by water from melting mountain snows and by irrigation.

CITIES: Kabul, the capital and largest city (population 450,000), is situated on the Kabul River about 100 miles from the Khyber Pass. Kandahar (population 100,000) lies in a river valley several hundred miles south of Kabul. Founded originally by Alexander the Great, Kandahar has a modern international airport, which was built with U.S. assistance. Herat (population 100,000) is located in the northwest near the Iranian frontier; it is a trade center for Persian rugs and pistachio nuts. Only 10 percent of the people live in cities or large towns.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: In centuries past many different peoples from the Middle East and Central Asia crossed Afghanistan, conquering its cities and scaling its passes to invade the lowlands of India. Among them were the troops of Alexander the Great and Genghis Khan. As a result the country's 15.7 million people represent a variety of ethnic types and tribal groups--Pushtuns (Pathans), Tajiks, Uzbeks, Turkomans, Hazaras, and others. Pushtuns constitute the dominant ethnic group, numbering perhaps 54 percent of the total population. Most live in the eastern part of the country and have kinsmen across the border in Pakistan (where the name for Pushtun is Pathan).

The principal languages are Persian and Pushtu, relatives in the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European family of languages. Persian is the main language of government, business, and cultural expression; Pushtu also is an official language and is being promoted by the government. Many educated Afghans understand English, French, or German.

Nearly all Afghans are Moslems, with the Sunni branch of Islam predominating. The emancipation of city women has begun in recent years. Outside the main cities, most of the people conduct their affairs according to ancient tribal customs and religious practices.

MODERN HISTORY: The modern kingdom of Afghanistan was founded in the mid-eighteenth century by Ahmad Shah Durrani, who gave the country its first semblance of unity and independent statehood. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Afghanistan served as a buffer state between British power in India and Russian power in Central Asia. Since the country emerged from British domination in 1921, it has slowly expanded its relations with the outside world while adhering to a policy of neutrality in dealing with foreign powers.

GOVERNMENT: Afghanistan is a constitutional monarchy. Mohammed Zahir Shah, the present Afghan king, came to the throne in 1933 after a period of internal upheaval. He has followed a policy of gradual modernization and economic development and has been careful not to antagonize conservative religious elements. A significant change took place in March 1963 when the King appointed for the first time a prime minister who was not a member of the royal family. The new liberalized constitution that took effect in 1965 bars the royal family from positions in the government and from membership in the National Assembly. The new constitution also lays the foundation for an independent judiciary, the right to a free press, and basic civil liberties.

Elections for the new 216-member National Assembly were completed in September 1965, and the Assembly held its first session in October. Members of the upper house of parliament are chosen in various ways--one-third are elected, one-third are appointed by the King, and one-third are named by provincial councils.

ECONOMY: About 70 percent of the population are engaged in farming and stock raising. Another 20 percent are nomadic tribesmen who spend the fall and winter in the lower valleys and move with their herds to high pasture lands in spring. Wheat, rice, cotton, fruit, and nuts are the main crops. Pelts from Karakul lambs--Afghanistan's most valuable export--are sold to other countries for use in fur coats known erroneously as Persian lamb. Trucks, cotton textiles, sugar, machinery, and petroleum products are the major imports.

A large irrigation and land development project, with provision for hydroelectric power, is under way in the Helmand River area of the southwest. The U. S. government assisted this important project in the 1950's with loans and technical assistance. More recently, the Soviet Union has undertaken to assist construction of a large irrigation canal system on the Kabul River. Afghanistan has many mineral resources for future development. Exploitation of some petroleum and large natural gas deposits north of the Hindu Kush is being undertaken with Soviet assistance.

Transportation is a key factor in the country's development. There are no railroads; and, until recently, most roads were unpaved. Goods traded with Western countries are transported by truck to railheads in Pakistan or else transported through the U. S. S. R. Both the U. S. and the Soviet Union have been assisting in the development of Afghanistan's basic transport facilities. In the past decade, air transport has been greatly expanded; and a thousand miles of highway have been built. The main highway system, when completed, will link the principal cities of Afghanistan and expedite trade through Pakistan as well as the U. S. S. R. An alternate trade route recently has been established through Iran.

The economic progress of recent years is evident in newly paved roads, new airports and schools, expansion of hydroelectric power, new construction in the major cities, some modern textile mills, and food processing plants.

EDUCATION: Around 10 percent of all Afghan boys are enrolled in school. The education of girls outside the home is only a recent development. Some primary schools are in rural areas, but secondary schools exist only in Kabul and the provincial capitals. The University of Kabul, founded in 1946, had about 3, 000 students during 1963-64. Facilities for agricultural and technical education, teacher training, and instruction in the English language are being expanded with assistance from American universities. Many Afghan students still are sent to Europe or the United States for technical or advanced studies.

FOOD: Afghan food is spicy but not hotly peppered. One of the main dishes is palau, a mixture of rice and spices with chicken or beef. Vegetables include eggplant, carrots, and potatoes. Desserts ordinarily are milk puddings, with fruit served later in the evening. Green tea is one of the national specialties. The Islamic ban on alcoholic drinks and pork usually is observed.

HOLIDAYS: May 27, Independence Day, celebrates the country's emergence from British control in 1921. Various holy occasions of Islam also are observed.

AUSTRALIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: An island continent lying south of the equator between the Pacific and Indian Oceans, the Commonwealth of Australia has an area of nearly 3 million square miles, just under that of continental United States. The nearest independent states are Indonesia (to the north) and New Zealand (1, 200 miles to the southeast).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The vast interior of Australia is barren and arid, much of it resembling the Sahara Desert. Stock raising, the mainstay of Australia's economy, is conducted around the rim of the dry interior in the eastern highlands known as the Great Dividing Range. Population is densest in the southeast--in the fertile farm belt along the Pacific Coast, in the coastal cities, and in the Murray River area. The 1, 200-mile long Murray River and its tributaries comprise Australia's main river system.

Australia has many variations in climate. Most of the interior is hot and dry. Parts of the north are tropical. Much of the southern region has warm, sunny weather comparable to that of California and the southeastern United States. Snow is unusual except in the mountain regions. Seasons are opposite to those in the United States, e. g., summer is from December to February, winter from June to August.

CITIES: Canberra, seat of the federal government and little more than 40 years old, is part of a special area called the Australian Capital Territory (population 92, 000).

Half of Australia's people live in the six state capitals, all coastal cities. Sydney, the largest, has a population of 2. 4 million. It is a major Pacific port, a leading industrial center, and capital of the State of New South Wales. Melbourne, second largest, has a population of 2. 1 million and is the capital and chief port of the State of Victoria. Adelaide and Brisbane both have over 700, 000 people; Perth on the southwest coast, about 500, 000. Hobart, capital of the island Tasmania, is a city of 119, 000. Only one-fourth of Australia's population is rural.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The estimated 12 million (1968) Australians are predominantly of British descent, and English is the official and prevailing language. Heavy immigration since World War II, however, has substantially increased the non-British element; and Australia today is a melting pot of many different European nationalities. The country's primitive aborigines number less than 50, 000.

Most Australians are Protestants; the largest single denomination is the Church of England (Episcopalian), with 35 percent. About one-fourth of the people are Roman Catholics; there also are some Greek Orthodox and Jews.

GOVERNMENT: An independent, self-governing member of the British Commonwealth of Nations, Australia includes six federated states and the Northern Territory. The federal parliament consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives, with members of the House elected on a basis of universal franchise. The prime minister and his cabinet are responsible to Parliament and must themselves be elected to Parliament. A governor-general formally represents the Queen throughout Australia but has no actual authority over its government.

Australia has joined with New Zealand and the United States in a Tripartite Security Treaty, known as the ANZUS Treaty. It also is a member of the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO).

ECONOMY: Australia is a major producer of sheep and beef and dairy cattle. Many of its sheep are of the Merino breed, which yields high-quality wool. Over 60 percent of the country's export earnings come from animal products, and wheat is another important export. Further expansion of stock raising and agriculture depends largely on increasing the supply of water, through irrigation schemes and other projects.

Large resources of coal, iron, copper, and other minerals have enabled Australia to develop considerable heavy industry. Manufacturing also has expanded in recent years, and more than 1 million Australians now work in factories. There is a flourishing motor vehicle industry, but most long-distance travel in the country is by rail or air. About 2 million of the country's wage earners belong to trade unions affiliated with the Australian Council of Trade Unions.

EDUCATION: Public education is administered and controlled by the state governments, though financed from federal revenues. Schooling is compulsory from the age of 6 to 15 in all states except Queensland and Tasmania, where school-leaving ages are 14 and 16, respectively. Correspondence instruction, supplemented by radio, is used to reach children in remote areas. About one-fourth of all Australia's pupils attend nongovernment schools, largely Roman Catholic. Each state maintains at least one university; New South Wales and Victoria have several. The Australian National University at Canberra is a research institution.

FOOD: Meat, fish, vegetables, and fruit are all common items in the Australian diet. Breakfast is a hearty meal, often consisting of fruit, cereal, eggs with bacon, sausages or steak, and tea. A cup of tea is customary in midmorning and midafternoon.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 26, Australia Day, commemorates the landing and first settlement in Australia by Governor Philip at Sydney in 1788.

BHUTAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Bhutan--a small country in south-central Asia--lies in the eastern Himalaya between India and Tibet. It has an area of over 18,000 square miles--nearly the size of Vermont and New Hampshire combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Bhutan is a rugged, mountainous country with great extremes in climate. Thick forests grow on the rain-drenched southern slopes of the mountains. It is extremely hot in the low foothill regions and extremely cold in the Great Himalayas. Only in the mid-Himalaya regions is the climate moderate.

Bhutan has three major land regions. A region of plains and river valleys lies along the Indian border in the south. It ranges from 150 feet above sea level to about 3,000 feet. Farmers grow bananas, citrus fruits, and rice in its hot, humid climate.

Mountains in the mid-Himalaya region, which lies north of the plains, rise to from 5,000 to 14,000 feet above sea level. Ash, oak, poplar, and willow trees grow in the moderate climate. Mountains in the Great Himalaya, the northernmost region, rise to more than 24,000 feet. The climate above 14,000 feet is very cold. Snow and glaciers cover some parts of this region all year. Mosslike lichens and shrubs are the only plants found above 14,000 feet. The major mountain ranges extend from southeast to northwest across Bhutan. The country's rivers run from north to south, forming fertile valleys. A southwest summer monsoon brings 85 percent of the rainfall.

CITIES: Thimbu (population 8,500) is the capital. The 100-mile Phuntsoling Paro road connects it with India. The town has many monasteries that house Buddhist monks but no major industries.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Almost all the estimated 791,000 Bhutanese are hardy mountaineers who lead a vigorous life farming and raising stock. They live in isolated valleys, cut off from one another by steep mountains. Two thirds of the people are descendants of Tibetan settlers; about a fourth are settlers from Nepal. Other important groups include Hindus and people from India's Assam state and from Burma. The people of Tibetan stock speak Druk-ke, a Tibetan dialect. The Nepalese settlers speak Nepali.

All Bhutanese of Tibetan descent belong to a branch of Buddhism called Lamaism, which is the official religion. About 4,500 lamas in Bhutan belong to the Red Hat Order of Lamas. These monks perform important Buddhist rituals, treat illnesses, and teach sacred doctrine. They live in fortified monasteries called dzongs which have chapels, offices, and teaching centers. The Hindus and Nepalese practice Hinduism.

The Hindus live in compact villages along the Indian border. Their rectangular houses of mud blocks and stones are built on high ground for protection against floods, wild animals, and snakes. People who live in the small villages of the mid-Himalaya valleys live in houses of oblong stone blocks that have pine-shingle roofs.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Little is known of Bhutan's early history. In the ninth century Tibetan invaders conquered the Bhutia Tephoo--the country's original inhabitants--and settled there. By the early sixteenth century descendants of the Tibetan invaders controlled Bhutan from a number of large dzongs located in the mid-Himalayan region. In the early seventeenth century Bhutan became a separate state when a Tibetan lama took power as ruler of both religious and state affairs. In 1907 Ugyen Wangchuk, a powerful penlop (territorial lord) was chosen to administer the government. He made himself Bhutan's first king and gave the country its first effective central government.

In the eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries the Bhutanese raided Sikkim and part of what was then British India, causing Great Britain to take control of some of Bhutan's foreign affairs. In 1910 the British Indian government took full control of Bhutanese foreign relations, but not the internal government. In 1949 India agreed to handle the country's foreign affairs and to help develop its economy; it later assumed responsibility for Bhutan's defense.

Bhutan's rulers kept the country sealed off from the rest of the world until 1959. Since then, King Jigme Dorjii Wangchuk has begun to modernize the country. In the late 1950's Communist China claimed some Bhutanese territory and occupied some border villages.

GOVERNMENT: Bhutan is a hereditary monarchy headed by a powerful king. The king, who set up the present system of government in the 1950's, appoints a prime minister and an advisory council to assist him. He also appoints one fourth of the 130-member Tsongdu (National Assembly). Village headmen elect about three fourths of the Tsongdu members, some of whom represent powerful Buddhist monasteries. The Assembly's chief duties are to advise the king. Tsongdu members serve five-year terms.

A dzongtap (district officer) is responsible for law and order in each of 15 administrative divisions. Families in each village elect a headman to a three-year term. There are no legal political parties.

ECONOMY: Most Bhutanese are farmers and stockraisers. Because farmland is scarce, crops are planted in irrigated terraces on the mountain slopes, chiefly barley, rice, and wheat. Most people in the high mountain areas herd cattle and yaks in the meadows. Some coal is produced in southern Bhutan. Bhutan trades chiefly with India. It exports coal and rice and imports gasoline, kerosene, and sugar.

With Indian aid, orchards and stock-breeding farms have been set up, a 400-kilowatt hydroelectric power station has been built at Thimbu, and another has been started at Paro. A 1949 treaty with India gives Bhutan an annual cash subsidy of 500, 000 rupees and transportation rights through India, the state's only avenue to the outside.

EDUCATION: In the mid-1960's about 15, 000 pupils were enrolled in 108 government-operated primary and secondary schools.

BURMA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Burma, about the size of Texas, is wedged between the subcontinents of India and China. It stretches from the high peaks of the Himalayas down to the waters of the Indian Ocean and the Andaman Sea.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Mountain borders give Burma long rugged frontiers with India and East Pakistan on the northwest and with China, Laos, and Thailand on the east. Down through the central plains flows the Irrawaddy River, Burma's economic lifeline. The two main cities, Rangoon and Mandalay, are linked by this great river, the famous Road to Mandalay.

Except for hill and mountain areas, Burma is a tropical heat country. It has three seasons: hot, rainy, and cool (when temperatures are in the 70's). Rangoon, the capital city with over 821,000 population, gets between 80 and 100 inches of rain during the monsoon season. Mandalay, with about 195,000 population, is in the central "dry zone" and receives only 30 inches.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Burma is populated by brown-skinned people of Mongoloid stock whose ancestors have come from the interior of Asia at different times during the last 2,000 years. About three-fourths of the estimated 25.8 million people are Burmans, who speak Burmese as their home language. Nearly all Burmans are Buddhist. Traditionally, both men and women wear skirts (called longyis) and smoke cigars (called cheroots). Burma also has many minority groups who inhabit the outlying hill country and vary in language, dialect, and culture patterns. Revolts by these ethnic groups have plagued Burma for years. In addition, there are about a million Chinese, Pakistani, and Indian inhabitants.

Burmese is the official language of government and the language of instruction in elementary schools. English is used as the second language and is studied in secondary schools.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Burma was a colony of Britain from 1885 to 1947, but had a proud past with strong cultural traditions. It was at the height of its glory under the Pagan dynasty in the eleventh century; many splendid monuments and Buddhist pagodas of that period still stand intact. Through good and bad times, the ancient Buddhist tradition served as a bond among the people. Under British rule, Burmese Buddhism began to acquire nationalist overtones; today the golden-spired Shwedagon Pagoda in Rangoon is both a national shrine and a moral symbol.

On January 4, 1948, Burma won its freedom peacefully from Britain and was declared an independent republic. It thus became the third nation in modern history to separate completely from the British Empire (after the United States and Eire).

GOVERNMENT: Since securing independence, Burma has survived insurrections by local Communists, the Karen minority, and other dissident groups. In 1958 the nationalist coalition which had governed the country for 10 years split in two, and Prime Minister U Nu resigned in favor of a caretaker government headed by General Ne Win, commander of the armed forces. This government held national elections in 1960, as a result of which U Nu returned to power.

In March 1962 General Ne Win took over the government, dissolved parliament, suspended the constitution, and put Burma under military rule. His regime exercises political control through a single, official party called the Burma Socialist Program Party.

ECONOMY: In this warm and well-watered land, raising food is not difficult. Burma has the lowest density of population in southern Asia and is a food-exporting country. Earning 70 percent of its foreign exchange from rice exports, Burma also is an exporter of rubber, cotton, and teak. It has rich and varied mineral resources, but current production is limited to small amounts of tin, tungsten, lead, and petroleum. The economy was disrupted extensively during World War II and has been on the decline in recent years.

The Ne Win government has emphasized government operations in industry and has nationalized all banks and foreign trade, as well as many business enterprises.

EDUCATION: Education is free from the primary to the university level, and the number of government schools is increasing each year. Higher education is available at the University of Rangoon and colleges in two other cities. There are also several technical schools and two medical schools.

FOOD: With their rice, Burma's people eat curry dishes of dried fish or boiled vegetables, sometimes fowl or pork.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 4 is celebrated as Burma's national independence day.

CAMBODIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Cambodia is part of the peninsular region of Southeast Asia loosely designated as Indochina. It is bordered by Thailand, Laos, South Vietnam, and the Gulf of Siam. Now an independent constitutional monarchy, Cambodia was for many years a protectorate of France. The country has an area of about 67,000 square miles, roughly the size of Missouri.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Cambodia is a large plain, broken by ranges of low, densely forested mountains. Flatlands in the center form a basin for the Mekong River and a large lake (Tonle Sap), creating excellent conditions for rice growing. The countryside is dotted with sugar palms and small rural villages of straw huts raised on piles. Large towns are linked with the capital city by hard-surface roads. The climate is warm, 68 degrees to 97 degrees, and humid. There is a dry season from December to May, a rainy season from June to November.

CITIES: Phnom Penh, the capital, is a city of about half a million people (40 percent Cambodian, 30 percent Chinese, 30 percent Vietnamese). It has tree-lined streets, a beautiful royal palace, and golden-roofed pagodas. A river port on the Mekong, Phnom Penh recently has been connected by highway with a new deep-water port at Kompong Son (Sihanoukville) on the Gulf of Siam.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 85 percent of the country's estimated 6.4 million inhabitants are Cambodians, known ethnically as Khmers. Minority groups include about 400,000 Chinese and 500,000 Vietnamese, both important in trade and commercial life.

The Khmers have dark-brown complexions and are descended from an ancient Asian people whose origins are obscure. They speak the Khmer language and use a native alphabet of Indian origin. Their religion is Hinayana Buddhism, introduced in the fifteenth century and still influencing most aspects of daily life. Buddhist monks (bonzes) enjoy widespread popular respect and influence through their educational work and moral example. Many of Cambodia's cultural forms, however, reflect the imprint of earlier Hindu influence.

French is the second language of Cambodia and is spoken by all persons with higher education. The Vietnamese and Chinese residents use their own languages.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Cambodia traces its history back to the small kingdom of Founan, established about the first century A.D. under the influence of Hindu immigrants from India and overthrown by the Khmers in the sixth century. From the ninth to the fourteenth centuries, the Khmer people developed a great Cambodian empire, the most powerful state of that time in the Southeast Asian peninsula. The Khmer empire centered in Angkor on the shore of Tonle Sap, where richly decorated monuments and temples were erected. Here in the twelfth century was built one of the great architectural wonders of the world--the temple complex of Angkor Vat, adorned with scenes from Hindu epics and the royal court. Although the Angkor civilization fell prey to invaders from nearby states, the Khmers managed to preserve their monarchy. In an effort to withstand Thai and Vietnamese pressures, Cambodia's king accepted a French protectorate in 1863. Later the French joined Cambodia to Vietnam and Laos and administered the three countries as French Indochina until World War II.

GOVERNMENT: Cambodia has had a constitutional form of monarchy since 1947. After the constitution was amended in 1960 to permit the National Assembly (legislature) to elect a chief of state within the structure of the monarchy, Prince Norodom Sihanouk was unanimously elected to that position. The prime minister is appointed by the chief of state and is responsible to the lower house of the Assembly.

Prince Sihanouk was king of Cambodia from 1941 until his abdication in 1955. He led his country to independence in 1953 and has been Cambodia's political leader ever since, although he prefers not to be king. Under his leadership, Cambodia has followed a policy of neutrality in foreign affairs.

ECONOMY: Cambodia's economy is based almost entirely on agriculture, stock raising, and fishing. Rice is the chief crop; the staple food; and, in times of good harvest, the major export. It is generally grown on a small-scale, family basis. There is much fishing in the Tonle Sap and the coastal waters, with dried fish a basic food item. There is also significant animal husbandry (draft animals, pigs, fowl). High-quality rubber, the second major export crop, is grown on large plantations established and still largely controlled by the French. Cambodia's first modern factories—a cotton textile factory, a plywood plant, a paper factory, and a cement plant—have been built under a Chinese Communist aid program.

EDUCATION: Education in Cambodia traditionally has been provided by Buddhist monks. In modern times the school system has been influenced by French patterns. Modernized pagoda schools are still important for rural primary education but are due for gradual replacement by Franco-Khmer primary schools. The chief institutions of higher learning are the Buddhist University and the Royal Khmer University.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 9, Independence Day, is celebrated as Cambodia's national day. The traditional Cambodian New Year celebration occurs in mid-April.

RELATIONS WITH THE U.S.: In the period from 1955 to 1963, Cambodia received approximately $275 million in economic aid and $85 million in military aid from the United States. Prince Sihanouk terminated the U.S. aid program in November 1963, and he severed diplomatic relations with the United States in May 1965.

CEYLON

LOCATION AND SIZE: A tropical island in the Indian Ocean, Ceylon lies only 18 miles off the southern tip of India. Because of its geographic position, the island is an important center of sea and radio communications in South Asia. Its area of 25,332 square miles is roughly the size of West Virginia.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The island is shaped like a pear, with a central core of mountains and highlands surrounded by flat plains. Around most of its coast are coconut-fringed lagoons that merge into a shallow sea. Its tropical climate is characterized by high humidity and an average annual temperature of 80 degrees in the lowlands, with little seasonal variation. The weather is somewhat more temperate in the mountain and hill region. Heaviest rainfall occurs during the southwest monsoon in early summer.

CITIES: Colombo, on the southwest coast, is the country's capital and largest, most modernized city (population about 511,000). It is the center of the nation's trade, commerce, and banking. Ships of the world come to its harbor, and global airlines use its airport at Ratmalana.

Ceylon's other major port is Trincomalee, on the northeast coast. A British naval base since the late eighteenth century, it now is being developed for commercial use. Only 15 percent of the people are urban dwellers.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population of Ceylon, estimated at 11.7 million in 1967, is composed of several different racial and religious groups that have shown little tendency to intermingle. About 70 percent of the people are brown-skinned Sinhalese whose religion is Hinayana Buddhism, and about 22 percent are darker-skinned Tamils, predominantly Hindu in faith. Small minority groups include Moslem Moors, Christian Eurasians, and a few jungle-dwelling Veddas representing the earliest known inhabitants of the island. The Christian religion cuts across racial lines with some 700,000 followers, most of whom are Roman Catholic.

Ceylon's diverse peoples reflect changes in the island's history over the past 2,500 years. The ancestors of the Sinhalese arrived from northern India in the sixth century B.C. and developed a rice culture based on an elaborate irrigation system. With the coming of Buddhism from India in the third century B.C., the Sinhalese capital of Anuradhapura became a great center of Buddhist art and civilization. It was from here that Hinayana Buddhism spread to Burma and Thailand.

The Tamil Hindu minority in Ceylon derives from southern India. It is composed partly of the descendants of medieval invaders who destroyed early Sinhalese civilization and partly of laborers or descendants of laborers imported over the past century to work on plantations. The Moors of Ceylon are largely the descendants of Moslem Arab voyagers who dominated the island's foreign trade before the coming of Europeans. The Eurasians of present-day Ceylon, known as Burghers, are descended from Portuguese and Dutch colonists who controlled the island's "cinnamon coast" for three centuries before the British took over.

The Sinhalese majority and the Tamil minority have retained their own separate languages, but English long has been the preferred language in government, commerce, and higher education. In 1956 heightened Sinhalese nationalism led to the passage of a vaguely worded law proclaiming the Sinhala language "the one official language of Ceylon." This law has created serious domestic controversy threatening the unity of the country.

GOVERNMENT: In the Ceylonese government, legislative power rests in a bicameral parliament, consisting of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The House includes 157 members, of which 151 are elected by popular vote and 6 are appointed to ensure representation of minority groups. The cabinet is responsible to parliament and is headed by a prime minister who also has charge of defense and external affairs.

Parliamentary elections in March 1965 were won by the United Nationalist Party (UNP), which received 68 of the 151 elective seats and formed a coalition government with the help of three minority parties. UNP leader Dudley Senanayake became prime minister, replacing Mrs. Sirimavo Bandaranaike. General elections are scheduled for March 1970.

ECONOMY: The island's economy is largely agricultural; over half of the agricultural population are small-scale peasant cultivators, whose chief crops are rice and coconut. The rest are employed as workers on large tea and rubber estates developed by the British in modern times.

Tea, rubber, and coconuts are the leading commercial crops, accounting for 90 percent of the nation's exports. The Ceylonese enjoy a higher standard of living than most of their South Asian neighbors, but the standard of living is being threatened by a rapid population increase.

Concentration on a few export crops leaves Ceylon dependent on imports for more than half its food and nearly all its manufactured goods. It also makes the country's prosperity vulnerable to changes in world market prices. The decline in prices for Ceylon's three major commodities and the rise in prices of imported goods since the mid-1950's have caused severe economic difficulties.

EDUCATION: Ceylon's literacy rate of about 65 percent is among the highest in Asia. However, the country still is in process of developing a national system of education out of separate English schools, Sinhalese schools, and Tamil schools, which long have had different educational standards and recently have been deeply involved in the national language controversy. There are three universities: the University of Ceylon (dating from 1942); Vidalankara University, a center for Oriental studies and Buddhist culture; and Vidodaya University.

FOOD: Ceylonese food resembles that of southern India. Rice is the staple item of diet, supplemented by lentils, curries, dried fish, shrimp, and fresh fruits.

HOLIDAYS: February 4 is celebrated as Independence Day, the date in 1948 when Ceylon emerged from nearly 150 years of British control and became a fully independent member of the Commonwealth of Nations. There are also many public holidays based on religious festivals.

MAINLAND CHINA (COMMUNIST)

LOCATION AND SIZE: Mainland China--about the same size as the United States--dominates the large land mass of eastern Asia. The 3.7 million square miles of territory consist of the provinces south of the Great Wall generally known as China Proper, plus Manchuria, Sinkiang, Chinghai (Kokonor), Inner Mongolia, and Tibet. Outer Mongolia, once considered part of Greater China, declared its independence in 1945.

Mainland China shares a common border with the U. S. S. R., Outer Mongolia, Afghanistan, the Pakistani and Indian Zones of Jammu and Kashmir, India, Nepal, Bhutan, Burma, Laos, North Korea, and North Vietnam.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Two great rivers rise from the high lands of the west and flow eastward. In north China is the Yellow River, known traditionally as China's Sorrow because of its frequent flooding with heavy toll of life and property. It was in the fertile basin of the Yellow River that Chinese civilization had its beginnings several thousand years ago. Until medieval times, central China and south China were regarded as barbarian territories. Longer than the Yellow River (which runs a devious route of 2,900 miles) is the Yangtze River, more than 3,200 miles in length and one of the greatest waterways of the world. Along its banks have risen provinces and cities, grown rich by trade and commerce, that played strategic roles in modern Chinese history.

Although most of mainland China lies within the north temperate zone, there are great variations in climate, with cold regions in the north, tropical areas in the south, and desert zones in the west (Central Asia). Rainfall amounts to more than 80 inches a year in some parts of south China, while the north gets only 10 to 35 inches. A wide variety of crops are grown. Many of the fruits commonly known in America originally came from China.

CITIES: The capital is Peking, in north China. This was the capital city during the Manchu dynasty and the early years of the Republic. When the Nationalist government established its capital at the city of Nanking in central China near the coast, it renamed the former capital city Peiping (1928). The Communists restored the name Peking in 1949.

Nanking, on the lower Yangtze, has become an industrial center with iron and steel mills, chemical and fertilizer plants, and truck factories, as well as cotton, silk, radio, and electronics industries. Although Shanghai is still China's largest metropolis, it is no longer a cosmopolitan center of international commerce and business. The Communists have remade the city into a Chinese industrial center. Wuhan, another urban-industrial center in central China, is actually three cities on opposite banks of the Yangtze: Wuchang, Hankow, and Hanyang. Here was born the Revolution of 1911, which overthrew the Manchu dynasty and prepared the way for the establishment of a republic (1912).

Manchuria, a collective name for China's provinces north of the Yalu, contains the large industrial cities of Mukden (Shenyang) and Anshan, the latter well-known for steel works that predate the Communist era. The southern coastal provinces of Fukien and Kwangtung have been the source of historic Chinese migration to Southeast Asia. Foochow and Amoy are major cities in Fukien, and Canton is the most important city in Kwangtung. Most of the early Chinese settlers in America came from villages near Canton.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population (most of which is concentrated in the lowland areas near the coast) was estimated at from 740 to 780 million in 1968. The vast mountain and plateau areas of the interior have heretofore been undeveloped and sparsely inhabited. However, the Communists have launched a drive to move more people into the frontier lands of the north and west.

The dominant Chinese race is known as the Han. Besides the large non-Chinese populations in Tibet, Sinkiang, and Inner Mongolia, there are many small ethnic minorities in the southern and western parts of China proper. The Manchus are no longer a distinct ethnic group; they have thoroughly intermingled with the Chinese. The Communists call their state a unified multinational state and have declared all ethnic groups or nationalities free to develop their own spoken and written languages. The total non-Chinese population is estimated to be from 35 to 40 million members.

The language problem is not as complicated as it seems. There is only one written Chinese language. Historically, a common written language and a common literature have been a major factor in keeping sprawling China together in a cultural unity which has withstood political divisions and military conquests by aliens.

There is a great variety of spoken Chinese, because the same written word is pronounced in widely different ways in different dialects, which may sound like foreign languages to those not familiar with them. However, the dialects present a serious problem in only a few provinces, notably those on the southern coast. In more than half of China, the spoken language may be considered as variations of the dialect spoken in north China, namely, what is known to Americans as Mandarin Chinese. A great effort has been made to make this tongue the Kuo Yü (national speech) of China.

This trend has been furthered by the Communists, who have stressed the standardization of pronunciation as a basic step in language reform. The Communist language reform, however, goes beyond the unification of the spoken language. It attempts to simplify the written language by adopting abbreviated written characters that are not basically different from the traditional written characters but contain fewer strokes (i. e., component parts) and are therefore easier to learn. These abbreviated forms are in current use in China today. Eventually, the Communists aim to "Latinize" the Chinese language by the adoption of an alphabet.

Buddhism and Taoism are the major religions of China. Confucianism, often considered to be a system of ethics rather than a religion, is a part of the thinking and outlook of practically all Chinese people. The Chinese take an eclectic attitude toward religious beliefs, and most of them are at the same time Confucianist, Buddhist, and Taoist.

Officially, the constitution of the Chinese Communist state promises freedom of religion. In practice, all religious groups have been reformed, so that all of them pledge full support to the state and the Communist Party. There is, for example, a reformed Catholic church in China today; it has denounced the Vatican and severed relations with it. Christian missionary activity has almost completely ceased.

GOVERNMENT: The governmental structure was defined in the Communist-sponsored constitution of 1954: a nationwide pyramid of elected congresses set up with the National People's Congress at the top. In theory, the NPC is the highest organ of state power. The chief of state is the chairman of the People's Republic of China and is elected by the NPC for a four-year term. The cabinet, known as the State Council, is the highest administrative organ of the government and is formally responsible to the NPC.

Operating directly under the central government are the following regional units: 21 provinces, 2 special municipalities (Peking and Shanghai), and 5 special minority regions (Inner Mongolia, Sinkiang, Ningsia, Kwangsi, and Tibet).

China's Communist Party was organized in 1921; it is estimated that less than 3 percent of the people belong to the Party. Mao Tse-tung, chairman of the Central Committee since 1935, serves concurrently as chairman of the Politburo.

The Cultural Revolution, begun in the spring of 1966, drew to an apparent close in the summer of 1968. Out of this massive, disruptive political campaign grew the revolutionary committee--now the principal local governmental units--which are coalition groups within each province and major municipality.

In Peking today real power appears to reside within three organs: the Military Affairs Committee of the Central Committee (under Mao's designated heir, Lin Piao), the State Council (led by Premier Chou En-lai), the Cultural Revolution Group of the Central Committee (under the influence and protection of Madame Mao). Above these stands Chairman Mao himself in a position of singular authority.

SINO-SOVIET RELATIONS: Since 1960 sharp policy differences and a strong Chinese bid for leadership of the Communist bloc have created a break-up of Sino-Soviet relations. In 1969 border clashes between China and Russia caused speculation in the West that the two Communist giants would go to war.

ECONOMY: Nationwide statistics on the Chinese economy have not been published in recent years. A third five-year plan began in January 1966; however, the disorder and violence of the Cultural Revolution has seriously undermined the economy. By mid-1968 industrial production was operating at levels well below those of 1965.

In 1967 there was a bumper harvest; 1968 agricultural production was somewhat lower.

EDUCATION: There are three kinds of schools in mainland China today: (1) the spare-time school, which adult workers and peasants attend after work, (2) the part-time school, in which time is divided almost equally between work and study, and (3) the full-time school, in which productive labor is secondary to study. All students are required to engage in productive labor.

Institutes of higher education include 15 universities, 48 engineering colleges, and 31 agricultural colleges. English and Russian are required in high schools.

FOOD: Rice is the staple food in central and south China, wheat and millet in the north. The Chinese prefer pork and chicken to beef, and many of them dislike dairy products. Soya bean products provide a variety of protein food for the millions who cannot afford meat too often. Seafood is popular in the coastal provinces.

There are marked variations in the style of cooking and serving food in different parts of China. Besides Cantonese food--the kind usually served in Chinese restaurants in America--many other styles of cooking are well-known in China, for example, Fukienese food, Szechwanese food, Shanghai food, and Peking food.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: The most important official holiday is October 1, commemorating the birth of the People's Republic of China in 1949. There are no public celebrations of the birthday of Mao Tse-tung or any of the other Chinese Communist leaders.

The Spring Festival is celebrated at the time of the New Year, which is dated according to the old lunar calendar. Though not officially recognized by the Communist government, this festival is still universally observed by the Chinese people.

INDIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The republic of India shares with Pakistan the great subcontinent of South Asia, which juts down from the Himalaya mountains into the Indian Ocean. In the north India has long rugged frontiers with Red China and Tibet; with the mountain states of Nepal, Sikkim, and Bhutan; and with the hill country of Burma (to the east).

Over 1.2 million square miles in area, India is as large as Western Europe and about one-third the size of the United States.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Below the Himalayas, the land of India divides into two major regions. Across the north is the fertile plain of the Ganges River and its many tributaries, stretching from the dry wheatlands northwest of Delhi to the teeming rice paddies of Bengal and the great urban area of Calcutta. The Gangetic plain is the heartland of India, home of half the nation's people. South of the Gangetic plain is the triangular Indian peninsula, with narrow, heavily populated coastal plains fringing the central Deccan plateau--a rocky formation cut by several rich river valleys.

Most of India has a hot tropical climate, with a rainy season from June to September (during the southwest monsoon). In Delhi, temperatures run as high as 120 degrees during the hottest months (April to June).

CITIES: New Delhi was designed and built as India's capital city by the British early in the twentieth century. It has European-style buildings, tree-lined avenues, and spacious parks. The adjoining city of Old Delhi, the site of several old Indian capitals, ranks as an important railroad, trade, and handicrafts center.

The area around Calcutta contains most of India's heavy industry with hundreds of jute, chemical, steel, and engineering works.

Along the west coast of peninsular India is the big commercial and industrial city of Bombay; on the southeast coast is the large modernized city of Madras.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, SOCIETY: India's population exceeded 510 million in 1967 and is growing at the rate of 13 million a year. Only Communist China has more people. Historically, India has been the meeting ground of diverse racial groups, and ethnic lines are now blurred. Skin tones range from light to dark.

In religion, over 85 percent of India's people are Hindu. The country still has a large Moslem minority numbering around 56 million. Other religious minorities include Christians (12 million); Sikhs (over 9 million); Jains and Parsis (small in number but often prominent in industrial and financial life); and Buddhists (relatively few, even though Buddhism originated in India).

Constitutionally, India is a secular state, and religion is a private matter. But the religions of India are far more than creeds; they represent different ways of life. Associated with Hinduism is an age-old caste system, which divides individuals into graded social groups. About 65 million untouchables (outcastes who Gandhi called the Harijans, or Children of God) are at the bottom of the system, although untouchability has been outlawed for nearly 20 years. The caste to which a Hindu belongs affects not only his social position, but his marriage, the food he eats, and the occupation he follows. Caste regulations are enforced by sanctions which are religious in character; many of them now are breaking down, particularly in the cities, as a result of economic change and government social legislation.

LANGUAGES: India has 14 major languages and many lesser tongues. English serves as the common language of highly educated Indians and continues to be the official language of government. The use of local languages, however, is increasing at the level of state government.

The most important Indian language is Hindi, an Aryan tongue belonging to the Indo-European family. In various spoken and written forms, Hindi is understood by about half of the population. Hindi written in the Devangari (or Sanskrit) script--now officially promoted as the national language--is being introduced in most public schools and eventually is expected to replace English as the official language of the federal government.

Among India's other major languages, the ones of chief interest to the United States are Bengali, Marathi, Gujarati, Telugu, and Tamil. Funds for American study of these five languages, as well as Hindi, are authorized by the U.S. National Defense Education Act.

HISTORICAL INFLUENCES: India is the home of an ancient and complex civilization. Aryan invaders, merging with earlier Dravidian inhabitants, gave India its Hindu religion and sacred Vedic literature. The great Hindu epics known as the Ramayana and the Mahabharata are themselves over 2,000 years old. Beginning in the eighth century A. D., Moslem Arabs brought their religion to parts of India. Turkish Moguls, who ruled much of the Indian subcontinent from the thirteenth to the eighteenth centuries, brought a rich Central Asian style of architecture, expressed in the Taj Mahal and other masterpieces of the north. The subsequent British rulers brought modern unifying influences of law and political liberalism and drew India within the orbit of the industrial revolution.

Indian nationalism began to emerge as an organized movement in the late nineteenth century and became increasingly strong in the 1930's and the 1940's under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. Spurning violence, Gandhi led the Indian people in a campaign of passive resistance and noncooperation with British rule. In 1947 freedom finally was won at the price of partition. The predominantly Moslem border areas seceded from India to form the separate nation of Pakistan.

GOVERNMENT: India is a union of 16 federated states and 8 centrally administered union territories. Political pressure from cultural and linguistic groups has caused the redrawing of state boundaries to coincide, in most cases, with major linguistic groupings throughout the country. The federal government is parliamentary in form with an indirectly elected president serving as head of state. Parliament has two houses--the Council of States, whose members represent the various states and territories of the union, and the House of the People, whose members are directly elected by universal adult suffrage. The cabinet is headed by a prime minister and is directly responsible to the legislature. Jawaharlal Nehru was India's prime minister from independence until his death in May 1964. His successor, Lai Bahadur Shastri, died in January 1966. Mrs. Indira Gandhi, daughter of Nehru, was then elected to leadership of the ruling Congress Party and confirmed by parliament as the prime minister.

ECONOMY: India is a country of more than half a million small rural villages. About 70 percent of all the Indian people make their living on the land. Under five-year plans, begun in 1951, many industrial plants have been built, and irrigation and electric power have been greatly expanded. The problem of economic growth, however, is greatly complicated by the rapid rate at which the country's population is increasing.

In July 1969 Mrs. Gandhi took the first serious step toward real socialism by nationalizing the banks.

EDUCATION: There is free and compulsory education through age 14. Responsibility for education is divided between the federal and the state governments, and strong efforts are being made by many Indian states to extend and revise the school systems. For rural children, education is developed in relation to other phases of village modernization. In secondary education, more emphasis is placed on vocational and technical training. Over half of India's 62 universities have been established since independence, and a variety of new institutes for higher technical training also have been organized.

FOOD: Indian cooking emphasizes rice, vegetables, lentils, and seasonings (hot, sweet, and sour). In the Punjab, unleavened pancakes of wheat flour (called chappaties) replace rice. Indian curry sauces are seasoned with an elaborate mixture of freshly ground spices, seeds, and herbs; the strength of the seasoning varies from region to region. Specialties include a great variety of Indian breads and fancy Indian candies (called "sweets").

Orthodox Hindus and Jains generally refrain from eating meat since their religions forbid the taking of animal life. Fish, chicken, and eggs sometimes are also avoided under this religious taboo. Even the most Westernized Indians tend to shun beef, for the cow is Hinduism's most sacred animal. Orthodox Hindus customarily abstain from alcoholic drinks.

HOLIDAYS: January 26, Republic Day, is the major political holiday; it is the date in 1950 when the constitution of the Indian Union entered into force. August 15, Independence Day, is another national holiday. There are also many colorful festivals associated with religious observances.

INDONESIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Indonesia, made up of about 3,000 islands, stretches along the equator for 3,000 miles between the Southeast Asian mainland and Australia. It possesses all the territory of the former Netherlands East Indies, including the western half of the island of New Guinea (West Irian), which was transferred to Indonesian administration in May 1963. The largest nation of Southeast Asia, Indonesia (including West New Guinea) has a land area of 737,000 square miles.

MAJOR ISLANDS: The most important Indonesian islands are Java, Sumatra, Kalimantan (the Indonesian part of Borneo), and Sulawesi (Celebes). Java, one of the most densely populated places in the world, supports some two-thirds of the nation's people in an area the size of New York State. Sumatra, with over 16 million people, has an area nearly three times the size of Java. Among the small islands, Bali is famous for its artistic people and beautiful scenery. The Moluccas, further east, are renowned as the Spice Islands.

The Indonesian islands are mountainous and have many volcanoes. Lush tropical forests and coastal lowlands also are part of the landscape. Upland areas on the principal islands provide a temperate contrast to the hot and humid climate of the lowlands.

CAPITAL CITY: Djakarta, on the northwest coast of Java, has a population of 4.6 million. It is the governmental, commercial, and cultural center of Indonesia.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Indonesia is the world's fifth most populous country, with an estimated 107.8 million people. The Indonesian people, predominantly of brown-skinned Malay stock, include many different cultural and linguistic groups. Minorities include 2 million or more Chinese and a few thousand Europeans.

Nearly 90 percent of the Indonesian people are Moslems. Most of the inhabitants of Bali are Hindus. The country's Christians number at least 3 million and are predominantly Protestant. The Chinese minority is largely Buddhist-Confucianist.

Long before the Europeans arrived, Indonesian states had developed on Sumatra and Java under strong Hindu and Buddhist influences from India. The cultural heritage of this early Hindu period is still preserved in the life and arts of Bali, in the music and dance of Palembang (Sumatra) and Jogjakarta (Java), and in great religious monuments and temples, such as the Borobodur, a world-renowned Buddhist shrine being reconstructed in central Java.

Islam, introduced in the twelfth century by Moslem traders from India, spread gradually through Sumatra, Java, and other western islands, often absorbing local practices and earlier Hindu beliefs and finally becoming the predominant religion. Indonesian mosques omit the traditional Arab dome and minaret; hours of prayer are marked by the beating of a drum.

The official language is Bahasa Indonesia, a variation of Malay. It is now the language of instruction throughout the educational system and serves increasingly as a common medium of communication for the country's many different linguistic groups. English is taught in secondary schools and is used as a second language by the educated minority.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Europeans came to Indonesia in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries because of the spice trade with the Molucca Islands. First came the Portuguese, then the English and Dutch. The Dutch eventually eliminated their rivals in 1595 and controlled Indonesia as a profitable colony for nearly 350 years. Dutch colonial rule over the islands of Indonesia was disrupted by Japanese occupation of the archipelago during World War II. When the Japanese capitulated, Indonesian nationalists under the leadership of Sukarno and Hatta proclaimed an independent republic on August 17, 1945, established a revolutionary government, and resisted Dutch efforts to reoccupy the country. The Dutch conceded national independence to the Indonesians at the end of 1949, after four years of protracted negotiations, frequent hostilities, and UN mediation.

Under the 1950 provisional constitution, Indonesia became a unitary republic with a president (Sukarno), a vice-president (Hatta), and a cabinet responsible to parliament. The first national elections were held in 1955. Factionalism among the numerous political parties, pressures for regional autonomy, and various economic difficulties posed increasingly serious problems for the central government in the late 1950's. Relations between Djakarta and the outer islands worsened after the resignation of Hatta, a Sumatran, in 1956; and the government had to forcibly suppress a rebellion in Central Sumatra and North Sulawesi during 1958-59.

GOVERNMENT: In July 1959 President Sukarno decreed a return to the constitution of 1945, which gave him virtually unrestricted executive powers. Subsequently, he replaced the elective parliament with an appointive legislative body, which was in turn part of a larger, appointive People's Consultative Congress, responsible for approving major lines of state policy and electing the president. Political activity became centered in the executive and the various mass organizations under its direction. As the role of the traditional parties declined, the influence of the well-organized Indonesian Communist Party increased and was balanced primarily by the strongly nationalist, non-Communist army.

On October 1, 1965, an attempted Communist coup, involving the murder of six army generals, was crushed by the army and was followed by a wave of violent reprisals against the Communists. Since then, Indonesian political development has taken a new direction.

In 1968 Lt. Gen. Suharto, former army chief of staff, became president. A significant change in foreign policy occurred in August 1966 when the Suharto regime signed a formal agreement to end Indonesian hostilities with Malaysia.

ECONOMY: Most Indonesians are peasant villagers growing food on small holdings. A few are primitive tribesmen roaming remote areas. Agricultural products include tobacco, palm oil, coffee, copra, and tea. Java has a thickly populated countryside with terraced rice fields; it also has Indonesia's three largest cities--Djakarta, Surabaya, and Bandung. Sumatra has large oil wells, refineries, and agricultural estates. The country also produces tin, bauxite, nickel, and coal.

Rubber and petroleum normally account for the bulk of Indonesia's export earnings. Machinery and industrial products are the major imports.

EDUCATION: There is compulsory primary education for children ages 6 to 12, plus optional secondary training and higher education. The government has concentrated considerable attention on expanding educational facilities, but they still fall short of aspirations and needs--including creation of effective literacy and expansion of professional and technical training.

FOOD: Rice, eaten three times a day, is used with vegetables, fish, and, occasionally, chicken or meat for lunch and dinner. Hot sauces--often flavored with red pepper, curry, or peanuts--are popular. Fresh fruits are customary for dessert.

HOLIDAYS: August 17 is celebrated as National Independence Day. Religious observances are mainly those of Islam.

JAPAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Japan is a chain of four large and many smaller islands lying in an arc off the eastern coast of Asia. Northern Japan is roughly 500 miles from the Russian port of Vladivostok, while southern Japan is about 120 miles from the tip of Korea and about 500 miles from the coast of Communist China.

With a total land area of 147,000 square miles, Japan is somewhat smaller than California. The largest cities and major industrial areas are on the central island of Honshu. The other main islands--Hokkaido, Shikoku, and Kyushu--are much smaller in size and population.

CITIES: Most of Japan's urban dwellers live in large cities. Tokyo, the capital, has a population of more than 11 million, including suburban towns. Osaka has over 3.1 million people, and five other Japanese cities have populations over 1 million (Nagoya, Kyoto, Yokahama, Kobe, and newly formed Kita-Kyushu-Shi). Each major city has a modern business district, but urban homes are mostly traditional Japanese wooden houses, spread out over a large area, many of them with small gardens. Kyoto, in particular, has a 1,000-year tradition as the capital of pre-modern Japan and is famous for its ancient palaces and temples.

CULTURAL TRADITIONS: The traditional Japanese way of life bears the imprint of early cultural borrowings from China, often by way of Korea. The Buddhist religion, the Confucian pattern of family relationships, and the characters for writing the spoken Japanese language all were acquired from China. However, since these borrowed elements were absorbed in relative seclusion from the Asian mainland, the Japanese created a distinctive civilization of their own long before they came in contact with the Western world.

A key aspect in Japanese culture is the nurture and appreciation of beauty in everyday surroundings, with emphasis on artistic form and symbolism. Japanese artistic achievement ranges from flower arrangement to outstanding functional architecture, from the Kabuki theater to lyric poetry and novels. Japan's greatest classic is the Tale of Genji, written by Lady Murasaki in the eleventh century and said to be the world's first great novel.

Another major aspect of traditional Japanese culture dating back to feudal times is the subordination of the individual to a system of loyalties within the family, paralleled by loyalties to immediate social superiors, and culminating in loyalty to the Emperor. Since World War II, however, the hierarchical features of Japanese society have been greatly weakened. The individual now exercises many relatively new freedoms in virtually all areas of Japanese life.

RELIGION: Japan's three major religions are Buddhism, Shinto, and Christianity, which are further subdivided into numerous sects. Buddhism arrived in Japan from China as early as the sixth century A. D. and has profoundly influenced the fine arts, social institutions, and thought. The great temples of Japan were developed under the influence of Mahayana Buddhism, and a dozen of Japan's present-day universities are connected with Buddhist organizations.

The Shinto religion is founded in the myths, legends, and ritual practices of the early Japanese people. From the late nineteenth century until the end of World War II it was the official state religion, under which the Japanese were taught that their country was a sacred land ruled by a divine emperor. As one of the reforms of the American occupation, government support was removed from State Shinto, and the Emperor disavowed his divinity. Shinto worship today is organized entirely on a private basis.

Christianity, brought to Japan by St. Francis Xavier in 1549, initially won numerous converts but was suppressed in 1637 and returned only after Japan was reopened to the West in the mid-nineteenth century. Over 700,000 Japanese are Christians, including many who hold influential positions in education and public affairs. More than 20 of Japan's universities are supported by Christian organizations.

MODERN HISTORY: Japan's rise as a modern power dates from the second half of the nineteenth century. Steps were taken to create a modern army and navy, build modern industry, modernize education, and adopt some Western ways. Soon Japan was taking part in the competition for empire on the Asian continent, defeating China in 1895 and Russia in 1904-1905. By the 1920's Japan was recognized as one of the world's great military and industrial nations.

Military elements replaced democratic government during the 1930's. Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931 and by 1941 felt strong enough to challenge the United States at Pearl Harbor.

Defeated in 1945, Japan became an occupied land for the first time in its recorded history. The Allied occupation ruled through Japanese officials and introduced many reforms in the political, economic, and social spheres. Japan was restored to full sovereignty by the Treaty of Peace in 1952; the United States retained military bases on Japanese soil under a bilateral security pact. In January 1960 the United States and Japan signed a new mutual cooperation and security treaty which provides for continued stationing of U. S. forces in and about Japan. Since the 1950's, Japan has established some self-defense forces of its own.

GOVERNMENT: Japan's present government is a constitutional monarchy operating within the framework of a democratic constitution that took effect in May 1947. Constitutionally, the Emperor is now only a symbolic head of state, "deriving his position from the will of the people with whom resides sovereign power." The prime minister is Japan's chief executive, and the entire cabinet is responsible to a popularly elected legislature (the Diet).

ECONOMY: Most of Japan is covered with hills and mountains. Little more than 16 percent of the land is suitable for cultivation, and agricultural districts are crowded with tiny farms and small villages. Crop yields have been increased by the use of modern techniques, and Japan's farmers now supply most of the rice and other food consumed in the country. Fishing is a highly developed industry, employing over half a million persons.

A feudal nation scarcely a hundred years ago, Japan is today a modern industrial state with a large, urban middle-class society. Although 40 percent of its estimated 100 million people (1967) people still live on farms, over one-third of the labor force is engaged in manufacturing and trade. Industrial production has increased sharply since 1950, and per capita income is the highest in eastern Asia. The recent drop in Japan's birthrate has strengthened prospects for further increase in per capita income.

Since Japan has few natural resources, its industry relies heavily on imported raw materials. All cotton, crude rubber, and bauxite must be imported, as well as most iron, petroleum, and coal. Major exports are steel and related products, clothing, chemicals, motor vehicles, optical goods, ships, radio receivers, and toys. Japan is the world's second largest auto producer.

EDUCATION: The Japanese educational system, decentralized and reformed along more democratic lines following World War II, is based on free public schooling for all children through six years of elementary school and three years of junior high school. English is widely studied as a foreign language, beginning at the junior high school level.

In August 1969 a "university normalization law" aimed at quelling campus rebellion went into effect. It gives university presidents special powers to cope with disturbances. Under the law, the national government may close down campuses for up to six months.

FOOD: The Japanese diet is based on rice, vegetables, seafood, and fruit. Rice is part of every meal; it is served plain and unflavored and eaten with pickles and other courses. Tea is customary with all meals and between meals. Popular dinner dishes include sukiyaki (beef and vegetables cooked lightly in a sweetened soy sauce); teriyaki (fish marinated in soy sauce and broiled); and tempura (fish, shrimp, and vegetables dipped in batter and fried in oil). Desserts ordinarily are fresh fruit.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: Japan's national day is April 29, the birthday of the Emperor. New Year's, January 1, is an important holiday, celebrated with feasting and presents for children. There are many traditional festivals throughout the year.

KOREA

LOCATION: Korea lies on the eastern rim of Asia and occupies the mountainous peninsula jutting down from Manchuria and the Soviet Far East toward Japan. The islands of Japan are little more than 100 miles off Korea's southeastern coast.

CULTURE, LANGUAGE, FOOD: The Koreans, a homogeneous people with an ancient culture, are considered part of the Mongoloid race, but distinct from both the Chinese and Japanese. Historically, Korean civilization was strongly influenced by Chinese culture. Yet the Koreans have their own proud record of cultural achievement, including exquisite pottery, classical court music, and spirited folk songs. The Koreans perfected a method of radiant heating by piping hot air and smoke through ducts under the floors of their homes. In 1403 they introduced printing with movable type, in the sixteenth century, an iron-clad warship to repel a Japanese invasion. The spoken Korean language is an ancient tongue, which traditionally was written in Chinese characters. A Korean phonetic alphabet was invented about 500 years ago and is widely used today. Many educated Koreans, however, still follow the old custom of writing in Chinese characters. In addition to their mother tongue, many South Koreans now have some familiarity with English. The traditional religions of Korea are Buddhism, Confucianism, and Shamanism.

Rice, meat, fish, poultry, vegetables, and fruits are the main foods. Rice is served usually plain and unseasoned. Next in popularity is keem-chee, a highly spiced pickled dish made of raw cabbage, onions, turnips, red chili peppers, and other vegetables. A favorite dessert is fresh fruit.

HISTORY: From the seventh century A.D. until the first decade of the twentieth century, Korea was a united, independent kingdom associated with China. As Chinese influence waned, Japan and Russia competed for influence in Korean affairs, with Japan emerging the victor through the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-1905. Soon after that war, Japan deposed the last Korean king and in 1910 annexed the peninsula to its empire. The Koreans resented Japanese efforts to wipe out Korean nationalism. In 1919 they issued a declaration of independence and staged a nationwide uprising against the Japanese. Upon liberation from Japan in 1945, the Korean peninsula was divided at the thirty-eighth parallel, with the southern part under U.S. military occupation and the north occupied by Russian forces. The Republic of Korea, established in the south in August 1948, was invaded in June 1950 by the North Korean Communists, later joined by Chinese Communist forces. The devastating war of 1950-53 left Korea divided virtually the same as it had been since 1945. Under the armistice agreement, the peninsula is divided by a military truce line in the vicinity of the thirty-eighth parallel. On each side of the line different governments are in power.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA (SOUTH)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: South Korea has an area of 38,000 square miles, which is slightly larger than Indiana and represents about 45 percent of the total peninsula. Its estimated population is 30 million (1968). The capital and largest city of the Republic of Korea (ROK) is Seoul. Other major ROK cities are Pusan, the chief port, and Taegu, an inland city.

LAND AND ECONOMY: Most of Korea is mountainous and hilly. The south also has narrow plains and numerous valleys that make it the major grain-producing region of the peninsula. About three fourths of all South Koreans are farmers, living mainly in rural villages and cultivating small irrigated plots. Their prize crop is rice, though winter wheat and barley are grown on some dry fields. Along the coasts there are many small fishing villages. Industrially, South Korea manufactures consumer goods and mines anthracite coal, tungsten, and iron ore. The climate is temperate, with heavier rainfall in June and July. Winter is the dry season.

GOVERNMENT: During the first 11 years of its existence, the ROK was headed by President Syngman Rhee and his Liberal Party. New elections in June 1960 were won by the Democratic Party, and Dr. John M. Chang became prime minister. In May 1961 an army junta seized power, which led to a revised constitution (1963), under which the president is elected directly for a four-year term and has strong executive powers, including appointment of the prime minister. The National Assembly exercises legislative functions; all candidates for election to the Assembly must belong to a political party. General Park Chung Hee was elected president in October 1963. In 1969 the Assembly voted to amend the constitution to allow the president to hold a third consecutive term.

EDUCATION: School is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 13. Enrollment in secondary schools is limited by lack of facilities and teachers; selection of students is based on academic examinations. The public school system is financed largely from various fees paid by students; government support covers little more than payment of teachers' salaries. Major institutions of higher learning include Seoul National University; Yonsei University and Korea University, both church-supported and coeducational; and Ehwa University, a Methodist-sponsored women's university. About 140, 000 students attend colleges and universities in South Korea; 95, 000 in North Korea.

HOLIDAYS: The South Korean national holiday is August 15, Independence Day, celebrating liberation from Japan in 1945 and inauguration of the republic in 1948. Another major national holiday is March 1, commemorating the 1919 uprising against Japanese rule.

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF KOREA (NORTH)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: North Korea has an area of 47, 000 square miles--slightly larger than New York State--and shares common borders with Communist China and the Soviet Union. Its estimated population is 13 million (1968). Pyongyang (population over 650, 000) is the capital and largest city. Sinuiju (population over 118, 000) is a commercial center.

LAND AND ECONOMY: In 1945, when the peninsula was divided, North Korea had most of the known natural resources and two thirds of the heavy industry. Large amounts of aid from other Communist lands at first promoted a high rate of economic growth, which leveled off in 1960 and has not yet regained its former momentum. A seven-year plan (1961-67) has been extended for three years. The current budget emphasizes defense.

Rice and corn are the principal crops. North Korea has well-developed mineral resources and ranks high in world output of tungsten, graphite, and magnesite.

GOVERNMENT: The Communist Korean Labor Party, headed by Kim Il-song, controls the government apparatus. In theory, the Supreme People's Assembly is the highest organ of state power. Politically, North Korea is divided into nine provinces, four municipalities, and one urban special district.

NORTH KOREAN-SOVIET RELATIONS: The U. S. S. R. signed a 10-year military aid treaty with North Korea in 1961, pledging defense protection and financial help. In the early 1960's North Korea sided with China in the Sino-Soviet dispute but has since shown signs of trying to maintain a more neutral stand. In March 1967 North Korea and the U. S. S. R. signed a new defense agreement.

LAOS

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked kingdom in the heart of Southeast Asia, Laos is part of the region loosely designated as Indochina and formerly ruled by France. It is ringed by Communist China on the north, by Communist North Vietnam on the east, by South Vietnam and Cambodia on the south, and by Thailand and Burma on the west. Laos has a total area of about 89,000 square miles, somewhat larger than Idaho.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Laos has rugged, mountainous terrain and thick forests. The valley of the Mekong River in the west, near Thailand, is the most highly settled area and contains two-thirds of the population--but occupies less than a quarter of the total land area. The waters of the Mekong and its tributaries irrigate lowland rice fields which supply the people's chief food. Laos has no railways. Most of its roads are impassable during the rainy season, except by traditional high-wheeled carts. Air transport is being developed. The climate is tropical, with high humidity the year around. There are five months of heavy rainfall during the monsoon period (May-September) and five months of drought (November-March).

CITIES: Vientiane (population 138,000) is the national capital and administrative center, the largest town in the country. Luang Prabang (population estimated at 45,000) is the royal capital with the king's residence.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About half of the estimated 2.5 million people are Lao. Their language, monosyllabic and tonal, is closely related to the Thai language. They are devout adherents of Hinayana Buddhism, the state religion, and much of their daily life is conditioned by the rituals and teachings of this religion.

Hill tribes of varied origin make up the balance of the local population. Many of these tribes, such as the Meo and the Kha, follow customs and religions quite different from those of the lowland Lao. The Meo cultivate dry rice and maize in forest clearings and also grow opium poppies for trade with the lowlanders.

About 25,000 Vietnamese and Chinese reside in Laos, as well as some French and other foreign nationals.

Lao is the official language. French is spoken by the educated minority and is used in government and commerce. Knowledge of English is increasing.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The Lao are descended from Thai tribes that moved southward from China, mainly in the thirteenth century after the invasion of Kublai Khan. Their national history dates from the founding of a unified Lao kingdom, called Lan Xang, in 1353. Lan Xang (Land of a Million Elephants) included more territory than the present State of Laos and endured for about 350 years. Internal dissension at the end of the seventeenth century brought about a split of Lan Xang into three kingdoms: Luang Prabang, Vientiane, and Champassak. After this split, Lao territory was frequently overrun by invaders from Vietnam and Thailand until it came under French control in 189[illegible].

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: When a constitutional monarchy was established in 1946, the king of Luang Prabang--a direct descendant of the Lan Xang royal line--became king of all Laos. The constitution establishing a representative form of government was promulgated in May 1947. The Kingdom of Laos became an independent state within the French Union in 1949 and secured full independence from France--under a treaty signed in October 1953--at a time when the northern part of the country was being penetrated by Vietnamese Communist forces. With them came a dissident group known as the Pathet Lao to set up a "resistance government." The Geneva agreements of 1954, providing for a cease-fire in Indochina, called for reintegration of the northern provinces under the Royal Lao Government, but the pro-Communist Pathet Lao remained in actual military control until the end of 1957.

The Pathet Lao reverted to armed rebellion in the summer of 1959 and by the spring of 1961 had won a series of important military victories. After a cease-fire was arranged in May 1961, a conference of 14 nations convened at Geneva. After seven months of negotiations, they agreed on a general pledge to respect the independence, neutrality, and unity of Laos and on a protocol providing for the withdrawal of all foreign military personnel. These agreements were subject to the formation of a "government of national unity" among the major Lao political factions (right wing, neutralist, and pro-Communist Pathet Lao). Further fighting occurred in Laos before the coalition government was finally formed in June 1962 under Premier Souvanna Phouma, a neutralist.

On July 23, 1962, the 14 nations participating in the Geneva conference signed the Declaration and Protocol on the Neutrality of Laos. The United States, the Soviet Union, and Communist China were among the states that signed this agreement. The Soviet Union and Britain served as cochairmen and have since been considered theoretically responsible for observing that the Geneva accords were enforced.

GOVERNMENT: Laos is a constitutional monarchy, under the Luang Prabang dynasty, with a prime minister and cabinet, the elected National Assembly, and a king's council of elder statesmen. The prime minister is appointed by the king and serves as the operating head of government. The governmental process is subject to highly complex political maneuvering among elements of the educated minority. Political instability has been heightened by recurrent Communist insurrection. The pro-Communist Pathet Lao faction withdrew from active participation in the tripartite government in 1963.

ECONOMY: The country has an agricultural economy, and most of its people are engaged in subsistence farming. Industry is limited to a few small processing plants, mainly rice and saw mills and one tin mine. Northern Laos is noted for teak, but transportation facilities are inadequate for large-scale exploitation of the country's forest resources.

Nearly all manufactured goods, fuels, and some rice for the towns must be imported. The main trade route now runs through Thailand and crosses the Mekong River at the Thadeua ferry near Vientiane. Imports since 1955 have been financed largely by U. S. foreign aid funds.

EDUCATION: Laos has been developing public education with the help of France, the United States, UNESCO, and some of the Colombo Plan countries. Facilities for further study beyond the primary grades are limited to the main towns. In Vientiane there is a public school which provides elementary and high school instruction in both Lao and French; there is also a French lycée, maintained by the French aid program. Scholarships are available for university study in other countries. Sisavong Vong University has been organized in Vientiane.

FOOD: Hot peppers and tabasco sauce are used freely, along with rice and various vegetables. On the seventh and fifteenth days of the month the Lao refrain from drinking alcoholic beverages.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: May 11 is celebrated as the official national day, marking promulgation of the constitution in 1947. Several other holidays are associated with Buddhist festivals.

FEDERATION OF MALAYSIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Southeast Asian country, Malaysia has a total land area of 128, 500 square miles. It consists of the 11 states of the former Federation of Malaya (known as West Malaysia) on the lower portion of the Malay peninsula and the states of Sarawak and Sabah (known as East Malaysia) on the northwest coast of the island of Borneo. The two portions of Malaysia are separated by about 400 miles of the South China Sea. The mainland portion (Malaya) has a land frontier in the north with Thailand and a causeway connection in the south with Singapore. The Borneo states have a land frontier of about 900 miles with the Republic of Indonesia. The various territories of Malaysia were until recent years under the administration of Britain.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Lying just north of the equator, the territories of Malaysia have a hot, humid climate with heavy rainfall. The greater part of their land is jungle, swamp, and mountain; the proportion of forest land is higher in the Borneo region than in Malaya.

The western coastal plain of the Malay peninsula is the most densely settled and highly developed part of the country. Here are found the major towns and cities as well as large areas of land devoted to tin mining; rubber planting; and oil palm, pineapple, and rice cultivation. The Borneo territories have 60 percent of the country's land but only 15 percent of its people. Beyond their coastal settlements are large expanses of frontier with resources that have not yet been opened up for commercial development.

CITIES: Kuala Lumpur, in southwestern Malaya, is the capital of the Federation of Malaysia. Over 475, 000 people live in the federal capital and its bungalow suburbs. Kuching, capital of Sarawak, is a river town near the coast, population over 60, 000. Jesselton, capital of Sabah, was a target for Allied bombers in World War II and has since been rebuilt.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Malaysia has a highly diversified population of Malayans, Chinese, Indians, Borneo tribesmen, and Europeans. Malayans form nearly half of the total 10 million population and predominate in the federal government. The largest single ethnic minority are the Chinese, over one-third of the total population; in Malaya alone, they account for 37 percent. The Chinese predominate in commercial activities and supply most of the skilled labor force. The Indian minority is around 10 percent. Indigenous tribes of the Borneo region include Sea Dyaks, Land Dyaks, and Melanau in Sarawak; Bajans, Murats, and Kedayans in Sabah. The several thousand European residents are mostly British businessmen and civil servants employed by the state governments.

The peoples of Malaysia long have lived as separate communities, maintaining distinctive cultural traditions. Malayans speak their own Malay language and are almost universally Moslems. Mandarin is the language of the educated Chinese, and several South Chinese dialects are spoken in the community. In religion the Chinese are a mixture of Confucianists, Taoists, Buddhists, and Christians. Many of the Indians are Tamil-speaking people of the Hindu faith from southern India. The Borneo tribesmen are largely animist, but some are Christians who have been educated at mission schools.

Malay is now the official national language, and English also retains an official status. English is the common language of educated persons of all races in Malaysia.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Formation of Malaysia in 1963 followed two years of complex negotiations. Efforts to include the oil-rich sultanate of Brunei in the federation broke down when a revolt erupted in that territory in December 1962 and was suppressed by British troops. The governments of both Indonesia and the Philippines opposed union of Sarawak and Sabah with Malaya, and the dispute with Indonesia worsened after the union took place.

Indonesia's government denounced Malaysia as a means of prolonging British predominance in the area. It cut off Indonesian trade with Singapore and Malaya. Armed rebel bands based in the Indonesian part of Borneo (Kalimantan) conducted raids into Sarawak and Sabah, and some Indonesian guerrillas were parachuted onto Malayan territory. Malaysian resistance was strengthened by British forces, who had remained at bases in Singapore and Malaya under a defense treaty with the federal government. In August 1966 the Indonesian government signed an agreement with the Malaysian government to halt the undeclared war.

Brutal racial riots erupted in May 1969 in Kuala Lumpur between the Malays and Chinese in the aftermath of the 1969 elections. Nearly 1, 200 people were killed in the street fighting.

GOVERNMENT: The Federation of Malaysia was established on September 16, 1963, by uniting the British dependencies of Singapore, Sarawak, and Sabah (North Borneo) with the Federation of Malaya, which had gained independence from Britain in 1957. Singapore seceded from the Federation in August 1965. Independent Malaysia is a member of the United Nations and the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Malaysia's constitution is based on the 1957 constitution of the Federation of Malaya. The chief of state, called the paramount ruler, is elected by and from the nine hereditary Malay-Moslem rulers. Executive power in the federal government is exercised by the cabinet, headed by a prime minister and responsible to parliament. The bicameral federal parliament consists of the elected House of Representatives and the Senate. Of the 144 seats in the House, 104 are allotted to Malaya, 24 to Sarawak, and 16 to Sabah. The dominant political force is the Alliance, an association of racially diverse parties led by Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman.

ECONOMY: Malaya produces most of the income in the Federation. At least one third of the world's natural rubber and roughly one third of its tin come from the plantations and mines of Malaya, developed when the country was under British rule. As a result, Malaya's people have one of the highest living standards in Asia. Emphasis on rubber and tin exports, however, makes the economy vulnerable to changes in the world prices of these commodities. To lessen the heavy dependence on rubber and tin, the government is encouraging rural development and expansion of local industry. Although a large part of the population is engaged in farming, Malaya has to import at least 40 percent of the rice it needs each year. Over 70 percent of Malaya's imports and exports are handled by Singapore.

In Sarawak over two thirds of the population is engaged in subsistence agriculture and fishing. The commercial sector of the economy is based on cultivation of rubber and pepper for export and refining of oil from neighboring Brunei (a small British Borneo protectorate whose sultan declined to join Malaysia in 1963). In Sabah (North Borneo), timber is the most valuable export, followed by rubber and copra.

EDUCATION: Cultural differences among the various racial groups have been perpetuated by separate vernacular schools: Malay, English, Chinese, Tamil, and some Dusan in Sabah. In Malaya all primary and secondary schools are now required to teach Malay and English, and a national-type secondary school open to students of all races by competitive examination is being developed. Kuala Lumpur has a technical college and a national university. Education in the Borneo territories is less developed. Literacy rates range from 25 percent in Sarawak and Sabah to over 50 percent in Malaya.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 31, National Day. On this date in 1957, Malaya attained independence from Britain.

MALDIVE ISLANDS

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Maldive Islands--the smallest independent country in Asia--consists of about 2,000 small coral islands that form a chain 475 miles long and 80 miles wide in the Indian Ocean. The northern tip of the Maldive Islands is about 370 miles south of India and 420 miles southwest of Ceylon. These green tropical islands cover a total land area of only 115 square miles--slightly more than that of Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The 2,000 small islands are grouped together in about 12 clusters called atolls. Barrier reefs around the atolls help to protect the islands from the sea. None of the islands covers more than five square miles; most are smaller than that and sit like small platforms about six feet above sea level. An 80-foot elevation on Wilingili Island is the highest point. The islands have clear lagoons and white sand beaches; the land is covered with grass and low-growing tropical plants. Clusters of coconut palms and fruit trees grow on the islands.

The climate is hot and humid. Daytime temperatures average 80 degrees. The northern islands receive at least 100 inches of rain per year; those in the south, almost 150 inches a year. The two monsoons that blow over the islands each year bring most of the rain.

CITIES: Male (population 11,000)--the capital and leading town--is located on Male Island, which is part of Male Atoll. Male Island is about a mile long and a half mile wide. The town has a radio station; an airfield is on nearby Hulele Island. Steamships sail regularly between Male and Ceylon.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the estimated 106,000 (1969) Maldivians are descendants of Sinhalese people who came from Ceylon. Some Maldivians are descendants of people from southern India and Arab traders and sailors. Almost all belong to the Sunni Moslem sect.

Maldivians--small, slight, quiet people--live on only about 210 of the country's islands. Maldivian men are fishermen. Their boats are built of coconut or other timber; most are 36 feet long and 8 or 9 feet wide and each holds about a dozen fishermen. Bonito and tuna are caught.

The official language is Divehi.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Scholars know little about the Maldive Islands before the sixteenth century, when the islands came under Portuguese rule. From 1656 to 1796 the Dutch ruled them from Ceylon. In 1887 the Maldive Islands officially became a British protectorate with internal self-government; Britain handled the islands' foreign affairs. A dispute developed in the 1950's between the Maldivians and the British over an air base on Gan Island, which led to the secession of three southern atolls.

In 1960 Britain and the Maldive Islands signed an agreement that gave Britain free use of the Gan Island air base until 1986. The Maldivians received the right to conduct most of their foreign affairs. Britain promised the islands about $2 million for economic development.

On July 26, 1965, Britain and the Maldive Islands signed a new agreement that gave the islands complete independence.

GOVERNMENT: A national convention elects the sultan to serve for life as head of state. The sultan appoints a prime minister to run the government for five years. The cabinet ministers--appointed by the prime minister--also serve five-year terms. An elected committee handles local government on each atoll. The government appoints a kateeb (headman) for each island. The sultan also appoints a chief justice to administer the laws, which are based on the Sunni Moslems' code of law.

ECONOMY: The economy is based on the government-controlled fishing industry. Dried fish--most of it sold in Ceylon--is the chief export and chief source of income. Other exports include dried coconut meat, cowrie shells, and fish meal. Rice, sugar, and wheat flour are the major imports. Ceylon is the country's chief trading partner.

The women weave yarn, ropes, and reed mats and collect cowrie shells from the shores. The men make lacquer ware.

FOOD: Besides fish, the local diet includes coconuts, papayas, pineapples, pomegranates, yams, and rice.

MONGOLIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Mongolia lies between China and Russia in east-central Asia and has an area of over 604,000 square miles--more than twice the size of Texas.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Mongolia is a rugged land. Temperatures are usually very hot or very cold. Mongolia's little rainfall occurs in a few summer storms, although heavy rains may occur in July and August. Snowfall is also generally light. There are also violent earthquakes from time to time.

No part of Mongolia lies less than 1,700 feet above sea level. The Altai Mountains in the west rise to more than 14,000 feet. A high plateau lies between the Altai Mountains and the mountains called Hangayn Nuruu in central Mongolia. This plateau has many lakes--the largest of which is Ubsa Nuur, covering about 1,300 square miles. Dense forests cover the mountains called Henteyn Nuruu, northeast of Ulan Bator. Eastern Mongolia is a lower plateau of grassland, which becomes less fertile as it nears the Gobi, a bleak desert area stretching from southeastern Mongolia into Inner Mongolia.

CITIES: Ulan Bator is the capital city. Darhan is a new industrial area. Mongolia's main railroad connects Ulan Bator with the Russian Trans-Siberian railroad in the north and with Chinese railroads in the south. Air service links Ulan Bator with other countries and with provincial capitals in Mongolia.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Nearly all the 1.2 million people (1969 estimate) are Mongols. About 4 percent belong to a group called Kazakhs. Some Chinese, Russians, and Tuvans also live in Mongolia. More than half the people live on livestock farms (about 300) set up by the state and resembling huge ranches with small towns in the center. Few Mongolians follow the traditional nomadic way of life. Those who do,live in collapsible felt tents called ger or yurts, which help protect them from the great heat and intense cold.

The official language is Mongolian, which is written in a form of the Cyrillic alphabet--the alphabet used by the Russians.

Many Mongolians believe in the form of Buddhism called Lamaism. The Communist government tries to discourage religious practices.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Various groups of Mongol peoples were united under Genghis Khan in the early thirteenth century. Genghis Khan and his grandson Kublai Khan extended the Mongol Empire from Korea and China westward into Europe. The empire dissolved in the late fourteenth century.

Mongol princes reunited Mongolia briefly in the late sixteenth century and converted the people to Lamaism. In the early seventeenth century the Manchu rulers of Manchuria gained control of Inner Mongolia. The Manchus conquered China in 1644 and seized Outer Mongolia in the 1680's. Mongolia, like China, had little contact with the rest of the world in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

The Mongolians drove Chinese forces out of Outer Mongolia in 1911. They appointed a priest, called the Living Buddha, as king and appealed to Russia for support. In 1913 China and Russia agreed to give it control over its own affairs. Although legally Outer Mongolia remained Chinese territory, it, in fact, came largely under Russian control.

In 1920, during Russia's civil war, anti-Communist Russian troops occupied Outer Mongolia and ruled it through the Living Buddha. Mongolian and Russian Communists gained control of Outer Mongolia in 1921 and established the Mongolian People's Republic in 1924, after the Living Buddha died.

China did not recognize Mongolia's independence until 1946. It supports Russia in the Russian-Chinese dispute for leadership of the Communist world. In 1966 Mongolia and Russia signed a new mutual-assistance pact. Many Soviet troops are stationed in the country for construction and defense.

GOVERNMENT: Mongolia--a Communist country--has only one political party--the Mongol People's Revolutionary Party. Only MPRP candidates and some nonparty candidates may be put up for election to national and local councils. The people elect the members of the Great National Khural, Mongolia's legislature, to three-year terms. The Khural elects a seven-member Presidium, which makes the important decisions on domestic and foreign affairs. Its chairman is the head of state. The Khural also elects a Council of Ministers, which runs the government.

For administrative and judicial purposes, the country is divided into 18 provinces (aimaks) and two independent cities (Ulan Bator and Darhan).

ECONOMY: The state owns and operates most factories and the state farms; livestock farms are cooperative property, owned by the members. Livestock raising is the backbone of the economy. Herdsmen keep over 20 million animals, more than half of which are sheep. Cattle make up about 35 percent of the exports; wool about 40 percent. Mongolia also exports dairy products, furs, hides, and meat.

Mongolia has little industry. Building materials, processed foods, tent frames and felts, wool and woolen fabrics, furniture, glass and china, soap, and matches rank among the chief manufactured products. Mongolia also has deposits of coal, copper, gold, iron, and petroleum.

EDUCATION: The Mongolian State University was founded at Ulan Bator in 1942. The country has teacher-training colleges and technical schools where students study such subjects as agriculture, economics, and medicine.

NAURU

LOCATION AND SIZE: Nauru--one of the more isolated islands in the west-central Pacific Ocean--lies 26 miles south of the equator. Tarawa, in the Gilbert Islands, is 370 miles to the east; Honolulu, Hawaii, is approximately 2, 500 miles to the northeast. Nauru has an area of 8.2 square miles and a circumference of 12 miles.

CITIES: There is not a capital city per se, but the local government council was previously located in Uaboe District.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The estimated population is 6, 800--half of whom are indigenous Nauruans. There are no urban areas, but the population is concentrated in the southwest. Agriculture is of very little importance in the economy.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Nauru was discovered by Captain Fearn in 1789. Germany annexed the island in 1888 as part of the Marshall Islands Protectorate. At the outbreak of World War I, Australian forces occupied the island. The Treaty of Versailles led to the placement of Nauru under the League of Nations Mandate System with the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Australia controlling. The three agreed that Australia would administer the island.

From 1942 to 1945 the island was occupied by the Japanese. In 1947 the General Assembly of the United Nations replaced the mandate with a triple trusteeship composed of the three previous mandatory powers. It gained independence on January 31, 1968.

GOVERNMENT: The constitution created a republic with a unicameral legislature--the Legislative Assembly elected by the people. The president--the chief of state as well as the head of government--is elected from and by the Assembly. Assisting the president is a cabinet of three or four members appointed from the Assembly.

Administratively there are 14 districts, but the government is still very much centralized.

ECONOMY: Nauru is totally dependent on one mineral resource--phosphate, which has been mined since 1906. It is estimated that four fifths of the island is covered with thick deposits of the mineral. This valuable resource has provided Nauruans with one of the highest per capita incomes in the world--about $4, 000. This bright economic picture is somewhat dimmed by the fact that the deposits are expected to become depleted around 1990

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 31, Independence Day.

NEPAL

LOCATION AND SIZE: Nepal is a landlocked kingdom lying along the slopes of the Himalayas, between India and Tibet. It is about 500 miles long from east to west and about 90 to 150 miles wide from north to south. Occupation of Tibet by Chinese Communist forces has greatly enhanced Nepal's strategic significance.

Although Nepal has basic economic and defense ties with India, its leaders are very sensitive to any signs of Indian interference or domination. During 1961, Nepal's official policy of neutralism was reflected in the signing of a Sino-Nepalese boundary treaty and an agreement under which Communist China is providing financial and technical aid for the construction of a highway between Katmandu and the border of Tibet. In 1969, anxious to maintain friendly relations with both China and India, Nepal demanded that India withdraw its small military mission in Katmandu and its radio manning posts on the Nepalese-Chinese frontier.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Nepal is rugged and mountainous, but there are three distinct geographic regions within the country. In the south is a narrow strip of low-lying jungle and farmland called the Terai, a continuation of the Ganges Plain of India. In the center is a band of hill and mountain country which includes populous Katmandu Valley, the heart of the nation. In the north, along the Tibetan border, is the high Himalayan region with snow-clad peaks and deep river gorges. Some of the most famous peaks are Mt. Everest (29,028 feet), Kanchenjunga (28,146 feet), Dhaulagiri (26,811 feet), and Annapurna (26,493 feet).

Nepal's climate varies from tropical in the Terai to alpine weather in the high Himalayas. Katmandu Valley, at an elevation of 4,500 feet, enjoys a fine temperate climate with temperatures ranging from 35 degrees in winter up to 83 degrees in summer.

CITIES: Katmandu, the capital and largest city (population over 122,000), contains many old palaces, temples, and houses decorated with elaborate wood carvings. Nepal's two other major towns also are located in Katmandu Valley--Patan (population about 50,000) and Bhatgaon (population about 40,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Nepal's estimated population of 10.6 million (1968) includes a variety of racial and cultural groups reflecting historic migrations from all surrounding areas. Racially, the Nepalese include both Mongoloid and Indo-Aryan elements, with some intermixture between them. The traditional ruling classes of Nepal are of Indo-Aryan and Hindu background, their ancestors having come from northern India about seven or eight centuries ago.

The principal religion of Nepal is Hinduism. Buddhism prevails in the northern districts, and the great temples in Katmandu Valley originated as Buddhist shrines. Many Nepalese follow a form of Buddhism blended with elements of Hinduism. A caste system derived from Hindu culture persists in many of the Nepalese tribes even though caste discrimination no longer has legal sanction.

Nepali is the country's official language. It is an Indo-Aryan language derived from Sanskrit and resembles various languages of northern India. In addition to Nepali, many tribal tongues are used. Persons with higher education usually understand English.

MODERN HISTORY: The present kingdom of Nepal dates from the mid-eighteenth century, when Katmandu Valley was conquered by the Gurkhas, descendants of a people who originally came from India. The victorious Gurkhas were led by King Prithwi Narayan Shah, founder of the Shah Dynasty, which still rules Nepal.

From about 1850 to 1960, the Shah monarchs were mere figureheads; supreme power was wielded by hereditary prime ministers of the noble Rana family. The Ranas maintained friendly relations with the British in India and permitted recruitment of Nepalese mercenaries--the famous Gurkhas--for service in the British Indian Army. Britain recognized Nepal's independence in 1923, but the Himalayan kingdom remained under the British sphere of influence until the withdrawal of British power from India in 1947.

The emergence of an independent India, the expansion of Chinese Communist power into Tibet, and the opening of the air route to Katmandu in 1950 have greatly reduced Nepal's isolation from the world. The U.S., Russia, and Communist China opened embassies in Katmandu during the 1950's, supplementing those of Britain and India. All five countries have aid programs operating in Nepal, and the competition between Communist and non-Communist powers also extends to cultural programs.

GOVERNMENT: A revolution in 1950 ended the long rule of the Rana family and restored the power of the king. In February 1959 King Mahendra granted a constitution which provided for a parliamentary system of government. The first national elections were held in the spring of 1959, and the leader of the winning party was called upon by the king to form a cabinet. In December 1960 the king dismissed the cabinet, dissolved parliament, and resumed control of the administration.

The present constitution, proclaimed by King Mahendra in December 1962, provides for a series of village, regional, and provincial councils (panchayats), culminating in a national assembly (National Panchayat) with legislative functions. Cabinet ministers are appointed by the king and confirmed by the National Panchayat. Political parties and political activities have been banned since 1960.

In the past few years the government has initiated a number of reforms, including a program of land reforms and a modernization of the legal code removing legal sanction for caste discrimination.

ECONOMY: About 90 percent of Nepal's people depend directly on agriculture for a livelihood. Rice is the main food crop, and jute now is cultivated as a commercial crop. Productivity is low, and per capita income was estimated at $70 in 1968. Foreign trade is primarily with India, which supplies textiles and other manufactured goods in exchange for Nepalese agricultural products and timber.

Government efforts to build the foundations for modern development began in the 1950's and have been supported by substantial amounts of external assistance, principally from India and the United States. As a result of these efforts, the capital city of Katmandu is now linked to other towns in Nepal by radio. Irrigation projects and hydroelectric dams are under construction; and small industries are being developed, including a saw mill, a cotton textile mill, and a leather tannery. The country has extensive forest and water resources for future development, but its most urgent needs are to increase food production and create an effective transportation network.

Supplies to and from Katmandu are transported by air, a motor road from India, and a cable ropeway (which carries baskets of goods up from the southern lowlands). Air transport is becoming increasingly important. Throughout most of Nepal, human porters and pack animals still are the principal carriers of goods.

EDUCATION: A countrywide education program is under way, and universal primary education is one of its long-term goals. A national university has been established--Tribhuvana University, near Katmandu. The adult literacy rate is estimated at 5 percent.

FOOD: Among the mountain and hill people, the staple foods are wheat, potatoes, corn, rice, and barley. The diet of most Nepalese, however, is based on rice, hot chilies, and lentils. Vegetables and fresh fruits are limited except in a few valleys; well-to-do families also consume eggs and mutton. Beef is not eaten, due to Hindu influence. Fish is a delicacy.

NEW ZEALAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: New Zealand, an independent member of the British Commonwealth, is an island country in the South Pacific Ocean. Its main islands lie in the temperate zone below the equator, about 1,200 miles southeast of Australia. In addition, New Zealand administers a number of tropical islands further north and the uninhabited Ross Dependency (160,000 square miles) in the Antarctic region.

The main islands of New Zealand, usually referred to as "New Zealand proper," consist of North Island, South Island, and a number of smaller nearby islands. Their total land area is a little larger than that of the British Isles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: New Zealand's landscape is varied. There are several large plains, many mountains and forests, numerous rivers, waterfalls, and lakes. Mt. Ruapehu, a volcanic peak on North Island, is over 9,000 feet high. Mt. Cook, the country's highest, rises over 12,000 feet in the rugged Southern Alps, which stretch nearly the entire length of South Island. Most of the people live along the eastern coasts, where nearly all of the fertile plains and the chief cities are situated.

The climate is temperate and moist, with regional variations. Temperatures at Auckland, far up on North Island, range from 36 to 85 degrees. On South Island, they average about 10 degrees lower. Seasons in New Zealand are opposite to those in the United States. The winter months are from May through July, and Christmas comes in midsummer.

CITIES: About two fifths of New Zealand's people live in four urban centers. Wellington, the capital, at the southern end of North Island, has a population of 282,000 (including the nearby town of Hutt). Auckland, the largest city and main port (population 548,000), serves rich dairy districts in the north. Christchurch, on the east coast of South Island, is considered the most "English" of New Zealand's cities; it is the commercial center of a major lamb, wool, and grain province and has a population of more than 247,000. Dunedin, another South Island city (population over 108,000), was founded by Scots and has strong ties with Edinburgh.

PEOPLE AND RELIGION: New Zealand's 2.7 million people (1967 estimate) are mainly descendants of British settlers who came to the islands after 1840. There are also about 165,000 Maoris, a brown-skinned Polynesian people, whose families were living in the islands when the first white men arrived. Immigration still comes chiefly from Anglo-Saxon countries of the British Commonwealth.

Protestant faiths predominate. About 36 percent of the people are Episcopalian (Church of England), 22 percent Presbyterian, and 10 percent Methodist. The Roman Catholic minority includes about 14 percent of the population.

GOVERNMENT: New Zealand is a fully self-governing member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. It has a parliamentary form of government in which a governor-general formally represents the Queen. Parliament consists of one chamber, the popularly elected House of Representatives. Four of the 80 seats in the House are reserved for the Maori people. The two chief political parties are the Labor Party and the National Party.

New Zealand has joined with Australia and the United States in a Tripartite Security Treaty known as the ANZUS Treaty. It also is a member of the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO).

ECONOMY: New Zealand is principally an agricultural country, with sheep farming, cattle raising, and dairy farming of first-rate importance. Rural production has been expanded through scientific research and extensive mechanization. In recent years New Zealand has become the world's largest exporter of meat, butter, and cheese. Wool is still a leading export.

Although farming and dairying are the most important economic activities, about 60 percent of all New Zealanders now live in towns and cities and more work in factories (26 percent) rather than on farms (13.5 percent). Most industrial activity is concerned with the processing of farm products or manufacture of consumer goods. Some metallurgical enterprises are in process of development, as well as a large industrial complex for production of pulp, newsprint, and timber.

New Zealand converted its currency from pounds to dollars in 1967.

EDUCATION: Schooling is free and compulsory between the ages of 7 and 15; children may continue through secondary school without payment of fees. About 90 percent of all primary pupils and 80 percent of all secondary students are educated in public schools. Facilities for rural education have improved in recent years, and children living in isolated areas may study through correspondence classes. In 1962 the four university colleges which comprised the University of New Zealand became separate, autonomous universities: the University of Auckland, the Victory University of Wellington, the University of Canterbury, and the University of Otago. The two agricultural colleges also have university status.

FOOD: Meal hours and basic foods are much the same as in the United States. National specialties include mutton, game, and seafood dishes, with many fresh vegetables and fruits from home gardens.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: February 6, New Zealand Day, commemorates the signing in 1840 of the Waitangi Treaty between the Maoris and the British, giving sovereignty to the British crown.

PAKISTAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Pakistan, situated on the subcontinent of South Asia, has a total area of roughly 365,000 square miles, about the size of Texas and Colorado.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS: The state of Pakistan was created in 1947 from the Moslem majority areas of British India. As a result, Pakistan's national territory consists of two wings of land, West Pakistan and East Pakistan, separated by more than 1,000 miles of territory of the Republic of India. The geographic outlook of West Pakistan is toward the Middle East, while East Pakistan looks toward Southeast Asia.

West Pakistan comprises 85 percent of all the national territory but has only 46 percent of the nation's people. It borders Iran and Afghanistan on the west, India on the east, and the Arabian Sea in the south. In the mountainous far north, only a narrow strip of Afghanistan separates West Pakistan from the U. S. S. R.; part of the former state of Jammu and Kashmir bordering on Chinese Sinkiang is controlled by Pakistan, though its status is disputed with India. Much of West Pakistan is arid desert and treeless plain. Its wheat and cotton economy is sustained by an elaborate system of irrigation canals based on rivers of the Indus Basin, whose headwaters lie mainly in Indian-controlled territory.

East Pakistan, a subtropical, rain-saturated land with some of the world's most thickly populated rural areas, lies at the head of the Bay of Bengal and touches Burma in the southeast but otherwise is surrounded by Indian territory. East Pakistan encompasses the great, flat delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra Rivers. Jute fields, rice paddies, tea plantations, tropical jungles, and swamps are prominent features of its landscape.

CITIES: Karachi, a seaport in the west with more than 2 million people, is Pakistan's largest city and served as the national capital from 1947 to 1959. In 1967 Pakistan moved its national government from Rawalpindi to Islamabad on the Potwar Plateau. Ayub Nagar in East Pakistan serves as a second capital. The capital and cultural center of West Pakistan is Lahore, population over 1 million, in the Punjab near India. The capital and urban center of East Pakistan is Dacca, population over 500,000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Pakistan's population is estimated at well over 100 million, making it the sixth most populous nation on the globe and the second largest Moslem country in the world (after Indonesia). About 80 percent of all Pakistanis are farm families living in small villages, with some nomadic tribes inhabiting the Afghanistan border region in the west. National affairs are guided by more sophisticated urban dwellers. There are many variations in ethnic and linguistic backgrounds.

About 88 percent of all the nation's people are Moslems; the Islamic heritage is the chief cultural bond between the two sections of the country. Religious minorities include about 10 million Hindus (almost entirely in the East), over 700,000 Christians, and smaller groups of Parsees and Buddhists.

In West Pakistan, the indigenous regional languages include Punjabi, Sindhi, Pushtu, and Baluchi. The predominant language of the educated, however, is Urdu, a variant of Hindustani written in the Perso-Arabic script. The name Pakistan means "land of the pure" in Urdu. In East Pakistan the prevailing tongue is Bengali. English still is used widely in government and business and for higher education.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: As early as A. D. 711 Moslem Arabs reached what is now West Pakistan. The major Islamic penetration of the Indian subcontinent, however, was from the eleventh to the sixteenth centuries when Moslem Turks, Afghans, and Moguls invaded the northern plains of India from bases in modern Afghanistan. The peak of Islamic influence was under the Mogul emperors, who brought all major parts of the Indian subcontinent under Moslem political control in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, imported a magnificent Central Asian style of architecture, and promoted Islam's egalitarian social system alongside of the Hindu caste system.

Throughout the subsequent 200 years of British rule, the Moslem minority of the subcontinent remained a distinct religious and social community. Efforts to achieve independence from the British as a separate Moslem state increased after 1935, when Britain acknowledged Indian independence as an ultimate goal. Focal point of these efforts was the Moslem League, led by Mohammed Ali Jinnah. Jinnah died in 1948, the year after British India was partitioned into independent Pakistan and independent India.

GOVERNMENT: For the first nine years of independence, Pakistan was governed by a provisional regime. In 1956 a national constitution was promulgated, proclaiming Pakistan an Islamic republic and providing for a parliamentary system of government. On October 7, 1958, President Mirza, with army support, abolished the constitution, dissolved the parliament, and declared martial law. Three weeks later, the commander of the armed forces, General Mohammed Ayub Khan, assumed the reins of government as president.

On March 25, 1969, Ayub Khan relinquished his office as president. The constitution was suspended and General A. M. Yahya Khan subsequently became president. Under the current martial law rule political parties and political activities have not been banned, and the authorities have stated their intent to restore constitutional rule pending certain reforms.

INTERNATIONAL NOTE: Pakistan remains an independent member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. It is a member of both the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization and the Central Treaty Organization. It has received substantial military assistance as well as economic aid from the United States. In recent years U. S. -Pakistani relations have been strained by policy differences toward India and Communist China.

ECONOMY: Pakistan is primarily an agricultural country. About 85 percent of the cultivated land is devoted to food crops for home consumption, but yields per acre are low and large imports of wheat and rice have been required in recent years to feed the nation's growing population. Exports of jute, cotton, wool, hides, and skins account for most of the country's foreign exchange earnings, the number 1 export being raw jute from East Pakistan, the world's largest supplier of this item. Since independence, a jute textile industry has been built along with many new mills producing cotton yarns and textiles.

Government development plans stress expansion of industry, construction of irrigation and power projects, and achievement of self-sufficiency in food grain production. The signing of the Indus Water Treaty with India in September 1960 opened the way for development of the Indus basin water resources. This irrigation project is scheduled for completion in 1970. The United States, several allied nations, and the World Bank are supplying financial and technical assistance for Pakistan's development.

EDUCATION: About one fifth of all Pakistanis are literate. Elementary education is free and generally lasts for five years. School facilities are being expanded, and about half of the children aged 6 to 11 attend school. Pakistan inherited three universities from British India--Dacca, Punjab, and Sind--and now has a total of twelve. Agricultural universities are being developed in both regions.

FOOD: For most Pakistanis the staple food is rice or wheat bread (usually in the form of pancakes). Spicy curry dishes are common, prepared with vegetables, chicken, lamb, or fish. Meat balls (koftas) and stuffed fried chicken (murgh-i-mussalam) also are popular. Desserts often are sweet puddings or vermicelli or rice. Many Pakistanis observe the Islamic ban on pork and alcoholic drinks; some do not. During the holy month of Ramazan, Moslems are obliged to fast between sunrise and sunset.

HOLIDAYS: August 14, Independence Day, is a major holiday. Jinnah's birthday is celebrated on December 25 (Christmas). Various Moslem and Hindu festivals also are observed.

PHILIPPINES

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Philippine archipelago--a group of 11 large and 7,000 smaller islands lying off the southeast coast of Asia--is separated from Vietnam and China by the South China Sea. The total land area of all the islands is roughly 115,700 square miles. The two largest islands--Luzon, about the size of Kentucky, and Mindanao, about the size of Indiana--account for two thirds of the total land area. Luzon contains the largest city--Manila--as well as a large part of the rural population.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Often called the Pearl of the Orient Seas, the Philippines is characterized by palm-covered lowlands, brilliant tropical flowers, forested mountains, and volcanic peaks. The people live mainly in small rural villages (barrios), reaching highest concentration in the fertile plains and valleys lying amid the mountains.

Highway and rail facilities on the main islands are still limited, but there is extensive interisland transport by boat and air. The tropical islands of the Philippines have regional variations in climate. In Manila the daytime temperature seldom fails to rise into the eighties and humidity is high the year around. In mountain and seaside areas the weather generally is pleasanter.

CITIES: There are several large cities in addition to metropolitan semi-Americanized Manila, which has an estimated population of 3 million. Quezon City, a suburb of Manila, is the official capital, but the national government offices remain in Manila. Baguio is the summer capital, high in the mountains north of Manila.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The brown-skinned people of the Philippines are predominantly of Malay stock, though 43 ethnic groups have contributed to present-day physical features. Of the total estimated 36 million population (1968), there is a Chinese minority of some 300,000, who are active in trading enterprises.

For evening occasions, men often don the barong Tagalog, a sheer, white embroidered shirt made of pineapple fiber, which serves as formal evening wear. Women have more social and political equality with men in the Philippines than in many other Asian countries.

The Philippine people are largely Christian in religion. About 83 percent of the population are Roman Catholics, about 10 percent belong to the Philippine Independent Catholic Church (known as the Aglipayan Church), and some 9 percent are Protestants. There is a substantial Moslem minority (5 percent), and some of the Chinese are Buddhists.

Catholicism came to the Philippines with the Spaniards in the sixteenth century and became firmly established during 350 years of Spanish rule. Protestantism entered at the threshold of the twentieth century when the Philippines were ceded to the United States as a result of the Spanish-American war. Islam was introduced as early as the fifteenth century by immigrants from western Indonesia. Its present-day followers live in the southern Philippines and are known as Moros, after the Spanish word for Moors.

English is the lingua franca of the country, understood by nearly half of the people and used in the schools, in commerce, and for most newspapers. The 87 "home" languages and dialects of the country belong to the Malayo-Polynesian group and are largely confined to definite regions. Tagalog, a Malayan dialect commonly used in the Manila area, is considered the national language. Very few of the people speak Spanish.

GOVERNMENT: The Philippines achieved independence from the United States on July 4, 1946, in accordance with a law passed by the U.S. Congress in 1934. Its republican form of government is closely patterned after that of the United States and includes a popularly elected president, vice-president, and bicameral congress.

The Republic of the Philippines has a mutual defense treaty with the U.S. and has granted our country the use of certain Philippine areas as military bases. The Philippines also is an active member of the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO).

ECONOMY: The Philippine economy is primarily agricultural. About 60 percent of the working people are engaged in farming, forestry, and fishing. Rice and maize are the principal food crops, while coconut products, sugar, Manila hemp, and pineapples are major export crops. Rice production has risen dramatically due to new "miracle" varieties of rice. Exports of timber and lumber also make an important contribution to the nation's foreign exchange earnings. A variety of hardwoods are exported abroad under the name Philippine mahogany. Plywood and veneer manufacturing has expanded rapidly in recent years, and rattan furniture is produced.

There are considerable mineral resources, including copper, gold, chromite, iron ore, and manganese. Mining activities have been expanded in postwar years, and exploration for petroleum is under way. Manufacturing now accounts for about 17 percent of the total national production, but most industrial products and many raw materials must be imported.

The Laurel-Langley agreement, which has governed trade ties between the two countries since 1954, expires in 1974. The agreement's parity clause gives U. S. citizens the same rights as Filipinos to develop natural resources and do business in public utilities.

Postwar recovery and subsequent expansion of the Philippine economy have been facilitated by the technical assistance, economic aid, and local expenditures of the United States. American investments there total close to $1 billion. Further expansion of both agricultural and industrial production is necessary to raise the living standards of the people, and this is the core of the Philippine government's development program.

EDUCATION: The country's public school system was established in 1901 under the American regime. About three fourths of all Philippine adults are literate. Public education embraces all levels. It is strongest at the elementary level, and tuition is paid from the secondary level on. The rural community school program is a major postwar development. Private schools still are important at the secondary and collegiate levels. The largest institution of higher learning is the University of the Philippines.

FOOD: Rice and fish are the most important items in the national diet; fruit is plentiful (mango, papaya, banana); various meats are available. Distinctive dishes include whole roast pig, stewed meat or fish with vegetables, and adobo (a mixture of chicken, pork, and beef flavored with garlic).

HOLIDAYS: The official Philippine Independence Day has been changed from July 4 to June 12, commemorating the day in 1898 when General Aguinaldo declared independence from Spain. Another major holiday falls on December 30, Rizal Day, honoring Dr. José Rizal, the national hero who was executed by the Spaniards in 1896.

RYUKYU ISLANDS (OKINAWA)

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Ryukyu Islands, under U. S. administration since World War II, stretch for about 375 miles between Japan and Taiwan and separate the East China Sea from the Pacific Ocean. The Ryukyu chain includes 73 islands and islets, with a total land area of about 848 square miles. Over half of this area is accounted for by Okinawa, the most important island, which is about 67 miles long and from 2 to 13 miles wide.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The major islands are hilly or mountainous, with fertile valleys among the mountains. One of their dominant features is the crowding of many people on a small area of cultivated land. Okinawa alone is inhabited by 758, 100 people (exclusive of U. S. personnel) making for a population density of over 1, 500 per square mile.

Although the Ryukyus lie in the temperate zone, the offshore Japanese current gives them a subtropical climate. Temperatures range from a low of 41 degrees in February to a high of 96 degrees in July; the mean annual temperature is 72 degrees. Humidity is excessive; rainfall is heavy. Typhoons strike the islands each year, generally between November and April, although they have been noted in all 12 months of the year.

U. S. MILITARY BASE: Okinawa, considered the keystone of the U. S. defense system in the western Pacific, is the site of a major U. S. base, with large airfields and typhoon-resistant military facilities constructed in the 1950's. In line with a program to reduce American forces overseas, several missile bases were closed on the island in 1969.

CITIES: The largest city in the Ryukyus is Naha City, Okinawa, with an estimated population of 218, 000. It is the center of the islands' political life and has the islands' chief commercial port. Other major cities include Koza City, Okinawa (population 43, 000); Nago, Okinawa (35, 000); and Hirara City, Miyako (35, 000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The 952, 000 Ryukyuans are an Asian people similar in appearance to the Japanese and Chinese. Their islands have been known to China and Japan since the seventh century A. D., and their way of life has been influenced by customs and ideas from both these nations. Their traditional religion is an indigenous animistic cult which has been influenced in varying degrees by Confucianism, Shintoism, Buddhism, and Christianity. There are no regular religious services except the celebration of certain annual festivals, whose dates differ from locality to locality. The prevailing language is Japanese, and in postwar years English has become the second language.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: In the fourteenth century the Ryukyus fell under the political influence of China. But in 1609 Japan invaded the islands and established a protectorate that remained in effect until 1871. During the 1870's Japan proceeded to incorporate the Ryukyus as an integral part of the Japanese state, finally removing the king to Tokyo with a generous pension (1879).

The Ryukyus were invaded by U. S. forces in the spring of 1945 and remained under military government until 1951. Under the U. S. -Japanese peace treaty, signed in September 1951, the Ryukyus were placed under U. S. administration although residual ownership was retained by Japan. The northernmost islands (known as the Amami Group) were relinquished to Japan in December 1953. Although the rest remain under a U. S. civil administration operated by the Department of Defense, Japan has asked that all of the Ryukyus revert to them by 1972.

GOVERNMENT: The U. S. civil administration of the Ryukyus is headed by a high commissioner, designated by the Secretary of Defense after consultation with the Secretary of State and approval by the U. S. President. Concerned with the development of Ryukyuan self-government, it deals with the entire range of Ryukyuan educational, judicial, economic, and social activities.

The Ryukyuans now exercise considerable self-government in internal affairs. Their central governmental structure, called the Government of the Ryukyu Islands, includes a 29-member legislature elected every two years by popular vote; a chief executive elected for the first time (1968) by popular vote (previously chosen by the legislature); and a system of courts with jurisdiction over all cases except those affecting U. S. security or involving members of the U. S. armed forces, civilian employees of the U. S. government, or their dependents (unless Ryukyuan citizens). At the local level, Ryukyuan cities, towns, and villages elect their own mayors and municipal assemblies.

ECONOMY: The economy is based on farming (rice, vegetables, sugarcane), fishing, and forestry; and about half of the working people are engaged in these activities. Food processing is the major industry; the most important items are black sugar, canned pineapple, and fish products. Nearly 50,000 Ryukyuans are employed by the U.S. military establishment, and the islands' economy is heavily dependent on spending by the U.S. armed forces and their personnel.

EDUCATION: Public education in the Ryukyus is organized on the basis of six years of elementary school, three years of junior high, three years of senior high, and four years of college. Attendance is compulsory through the ninth grade. There are 63 elected school boards, as well as the elected Central Board of Education (which sets broad policies and standards).

The University of the Ryukyus, founded in 1950, has over 2,000 students. A number of Ryukyuan students and national leaders come to the U.S. each year under an exchange program operated by the U.S. administration.

FOOD: Sweet potatoes, fish, rice, and tea are basic elements in the Ryukyuan diet. The style of cooking and service resembles that of Japan.

SINGAPORE

LOCATION AND SIZE: An island about three times the size of the District of Columbia, the State of Singapore lies less than a mile off the southern tip of the Malayan peninsula at the funnel point of the Straits of Malacca. A causeway bearing a railway and a highway links Singapore with the peninsula, which is occupied by another state--the Federation of Malaysia.

CAPITAL CITY: An estimated two thirds of the island's population live in the city of Singapore, the world's fourth largest port. This colorful and crowded city has busy banking, shipping, and commercial districts; an ancient Malay section; Chinese shops and restaurants; and blocks of modern apartment buildings built by the Singaporean government in recent years. The climate is warm and humid, with little variation in temperature (74 degrees to 87 degrees) the year round.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Of the State of Singapore's total population of over 1.9 million, 75 percent are Chinese, which makes Singapore the only country outside China where Chinese people form a majority of the population. The rest of Singapore's people are mostly Malay and Indian. Each ethnic group speaks its own language and dialects and preserves its own customs and holidays. In religion, most Chinese follow the customary blend of Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist elements, but some are Christian. The Malays are mostly Moslem, and the Indians are usually Hindu or Moslem. Virtually all educated persons speak English.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: A British Crown Colony since 1824, Singapore became an internally self-governing state within the Commonwealth in June 1959. Four years later, in September 1963, it joined the Federation of Malaysia. Tensions between the Malayans who controlled the Federation government and the Chinese who held power in Singapore resulted in the exclusion of Singapore from the Federation in August 1965. The separation agreement provides for cooperation between the two countries, specifically in defense and trade relations.

GOVERNMENT: Singapore is a fully independent state, with a parliamentary form of government. Its prime minister serves as chief executive and is responsible to the 51-member legislative assembly. Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew has held office since 1959. He leads the People's Action Party, which won the majority of seats in the elections of 1959 and 1963.

ECONOMY: Transformed under British rule from a desolate swamp into a great commercial and strategic center, Singapore's economy is based on entrepôt trade. It imports and processes basic raw materials from neighboring areas, then exports processed commodities--rubber, tin, petroleum products, copra, coconut oil, spices, timber. Some 70 percent of Malaysia's imports and exports are handled by Singapore. In normal times, Singapore also handles a substantial part of Indonesia's trade. Transshipping, insurance, and banking services add to Singapore's income.

Maintenance of the British military, air, and naval base on Singapore island has been of great importance to the local economy. However, Britain has announced plans to withdraw all its military forces from Southeast Asia in 1971.

EDUCATION: Government expenditures for education have risen sharply in the past two decades. The government schools are making efforts to bridge cultural differences, which traditionally have been perpetuated by separate vernacular schools. Parents can now choose which of four language tracks ("streams") their children will follow in school--Chinese, Malay, Tamil (South Indian), or English. Singapore has a state technical college and a state university. Nanyang University is a private institution, supported by the Chinese community.

3

TAIWAN (NATIONALIST CHINA)

LOCATION AND SIZE: The island of Taiwan--known to most Americans by its Portuguese name, Formosa--lies 80 miles off the southern coast of the Chinese mainland. Taiwan, shaped like a tobacco leaf, is about 240 miles long and 60 to 90 miles wide. It has a total area of 13, 800 square miles, about the size of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Taiwan's eastern half is ridged by steep mountains, but its western side is flat, fertile, and well-cultivated--yielding two or three rice crops each year. The name Taiwan means "terraced bay." The island's climate is largely subtropical, with long hot summers and short rainy winters. Since Taiwan lies in the typhoon belt and the earthquake zone, it is subject to violent rain, floods, winds, and frequent tremors.

CITIES: Taipei, provisional capital of the Government of the Republic of China since December 1949, is Taiwan's largest city (population over 1 million). Located at the northern end of the island, it is a few miles inland from Keelung, the main northern port. Kaohsiung (population over 400, 000) is the main port of the south and the center of the island's few industries.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Taiwan has an estimated 14. 1 million population (1969). All the people are Chinese except for 190, 000 Malay-speaking aborigines who live chiefly in mountain areas. Of the Chinese inhabitants, about 12 million are native Taiwanese descended from South China immigrants who settled the island from the seventeenth to the late nineteenth century. Around 2 million are mainlanders from all parts of China who came to Taiwan as refugees in 1949, 1950, and subsequent years.

The predominant religion in Taiwan is Buddhism, imported centuries ago with the original Chinese settlers. A substantial number of the native Taiwanese and the newer arrivals are practicing Christians; Christian missions remain active on the island. The President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek are Methodists.

Mandarin, the official Chinese dialect, is now taught in all the island's schools. Most Taiwanese speak a variant of the Amoy dialect as their mother tongue, but nearly every Chinese dialect is represented among the recently arrived mainlanders. Many educated Chinese, of course, are familiar with English.

The local society is predominantly rural; about two thirds of the native-born Taiwanese are peasant farmers. Many of the other Chinese on Taiwan are professional people, government officials, and members of the armed forces.

A Chinese surname is followed by the generation and given name, e. g., Mr. Wang, Shu-ming. A married lady uses her husband's surname, followed by her surname, generation, and given name, e. g., Mrs. Lin, Hsu Te-gang.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: After the Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95, China was forced to cede Taiwan to Japan, and the island remained a Japanese colony for 50 years. In 1945, after World War II, Taiwan again came under Chinese administration as one of the provinces of China. The Government of the Republic of China moved to Taipei on December 8, 1949. The Penghu (Pescadores) Islands between Taiwan and the southeast coast of China and the "offshore" island groups of Quemoy and Matsu also are under effective control of the Government of the Republic of China.

GOVERNMENT: Since the Chinese Communists overran the mainland, Taiwan has been the stronghold of the Government of the Republic of China headed by President Chiang Kai-shek. The United States government recognizes it as the only legal government of China, entitled to represent China in all international bodies and activities (as do many other UN member states). The National Party (Kuomintang) remains the dominant political party, although two other parties also exist.

The provincial government of Taiwan is located near Taichung, meaning "midisland." Its chief executive is a governor, appointed by the president. Members of the provincial, county, municipal, and township assemblies are elected for three-year terms.

ECONOMY: More than half the people work in agriculture. Most of Taiwan's farmers own their own land. Sugar and rice are the leading export crops; high-grade tea, canned pineapple, bananas, and mushrooms also are exported in volume.

Among the fastest growing industries have been those producing textiles, electrical equipment, chemicals, paper and wood products, fertilizers, and processed foods.

EDUCATION: Elementary education is free and compulsory from 6 to 12 years of age, and over 90 percent of the school age children are reported to be attending school. There are more than 1,400 primary schools, with about 30,000 teachers and 1.1 million pupils. There are junior and senior secondary schools (called middle schools), over 80 vocational schools, and 10 normal schools providing free training to teachers.

Taiwan has a considerable number of state-supported universities and colleges. The largest of the island's institutions of higher learning is the National Taiwan University at Taipei. Tung-hai University, opened in 1955, is sponsored by the United Board for Christian Education in Asia and represents a joint project of U.S. Protestant denominations that formerly operated university centers on the Chinese mainland.

FOOD: A dish of plain boiled rice is enjoyed with practically every meal, including breakfast. Tea is the national beverage, and a visitor customarily is served a cup of tea as a token of welcome and hospitality. A well-to-do Chinese family dinner might consist of the following courses: soup, chicken in soy sauce, sliced beef and green pappers, shredded pork with Chinese cabbage, and shelled shrimp in tomato sauce. The Chinese generally use vegetable oil as fat in their cooking, never butter.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: The official national day of the Republic of China is October 10, "Double Ten" Day. Other major holidays include January 1, anniversary of the founding of the Republic of China in 1912; September 28, Confucius' birthday; November 12, birthday of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, father of the Chinese Republic. The Chinese New Year, which occurs several weeks later than ours, is traditionally a festive occasion.

THAILAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: Thailand, formerly known as Siam, lies in the center of the Southeast Asian peninsula. It has Burma as its neighbor on the west and north, Laos on the northeast, Cambodia on the east, and Malaya on the extreme south. In the southeast it borders on the Gulf of Siam. About four fifths the size of Texas, Thailand has a total area of nearly 200,000 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A land of diversified terrain, Thailand has a mountainous northwest frontier with large tropical forests. The Chao Phraya River and its tributaries water the broad central plain where most of the people live and most of the country's large rice crop is grown. The Mekong River, which flows from China to southern Vietnam, forms much of Thailand's border with Laos. Plans for irrigation and flood control projects on the Mekong aim to improve the agricultural potential of Thailand's northeastern plateau region. Thailand has a tropical, monsoon climate, characterized by high temperatures and humidity. The rainy season lasts from mid-May through mid-September, the dry season from November through mid-March.

CAPITAL: Bangkok, called the Celestial City, has a population well over 2 million. A colorful city with Buddhist temples and beautiful palaces, modern boulevards and Western-style business buildings, it is interlaced with a system of canals known as klongs. The country's chief port and urban center, it also has a large modern airport serving numerous international airlines. In recent years it has become a regional center for various UN agencies.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the country's estimated 34 million population (1968) belong to the southern branch of the Thai group of peoples. Minority groups of non-Thai extraction include about 4 million Chinese, 1 million Malay-speaking Moslems, 40,000 Vietnamese, and various hill tribes in the north estimated at about 300,000. As elsewhere in Southeast Asia, the Chinese have been active in retail trade and commerce and have tended to cling to their Chinese nationality and customs.

The Thai (Siamese) are typically of olive-brown complexion. Their ancestors began moving into the area from southwest China about 1,000 years ago and established an independent kingdom along the Chao Phraya River basin in the thirteenth century. The Thai language, related phonetically to the Chinese, uses written characters derived from the Cambodian alphabet, which is based in turn on the ancient Sanskrit of India. Hinayana Buddhism is the state religion. Adopted by the Thai people seven centuries ago, it has provided the principal inspiration for their social system, art, and literature and remains an essential part of their everyday lives.

The people of Thailand long have been distinguished for fine handicrafts such as silks, jewelry, leather goods, and neilloware (a form of oxidized silver with inlaid and engraved designs).

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Thailand--proud of its long tradition of independence--never was under Western rule. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, it had an enlightened line of absolute kings who lost some territory to the British and the French but who retained political independence and initiated programs of partial modernization. King Mongkut (1851-1868) took great interest in Western learning and sciences, while his son, King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910) is noted for introducing modern judicial and educational institutions, as well as hospitals and Western means of communication.

GOVERNMENT: Thailand has had a constitutional form of monarchy since 1932. Its present king, Bhumidol Adulyadej, was born in Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1927. In recent decades governmental changes have occurred primarily through coup d'etat, and political control has been exercised by a ruling group of military men. The group headed by Field Marshal Sarit took power in 1957. Sarit died in December 1963 and was succeeded as prime minister by Field Marshal Thanom Kittikachorn. Under the new constitution, promulgated in 1968, the Senate is appointed by the king and the members of the House of Representatives are elected by the people. Following the first elections under the new constitution in February 1969, the king reappointed Marshal Thanom as prime minister.

INTERNATIONAL NOTE: Thailand has been a member of the UN since 1946 and contributed troops to help resist the Communist aggression in Korea. It is allied with the United States and several other nations in the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) and has been actively concerned with the threat of overt and undercover Communist activities in the region. With the intensification of hostilities in Vietnam, Thailand has accepted a growing American military presence in its own territory, notably in the northeast region.

ECONOMY: About 80 percent of Thailand's people are engaged in agriculture, with small owner-operated farms predominating. Rice, corn, and tapioca are major exports.

The northern forests provide teakwood for export, while the long Kra Isthmus of southern Thailand yields rubber and tin. Thailand was the first Asian country to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce with the United States (in 1833), and our country is a leading customer for Thai minerals and raw rubber.

EDUCATION: Thailand's first national compulsory primary education law was promulgated in 1921. Education through the fourth grade is offered in all parts of the country, and the government is currently seeking to extend this to the seventh grade. The largest and most celebrated institution of higher learning in Thailand is Chulalongkorn University, founded in 1917. Thailand's literacy rate is about 70 percent.

FOOD: Rice is the staple food. The chief source of protein in the national diet--fish--is prepared and eaten in many different ways. Many Thais spend part of their time catching fish--from the coastal waters, rivers, and even rice paddies at floodtime. Tropical fruits also abound, including bananas and mangoes.

HOLIDAYS: December 5 is celebrated as the birthday of the king. There are many ceremonial holidays and festivals.

VIETNAM

LOCATION: A long, narrow, S-shaped land, Vietnam stretches for more than 1,000 miles along the eastern coast of the Southeast Asian peninsula, from the border of Communist China in the north to the Gulf of Siam in the south. It is bordered on the west by Laos and Cambodia, on the east by the South China Sea. Vietnam has a tropical monsoon climate. Geographically, South Vietnam encompasses the Mekong River delta (Cochin-China) and most of the narrow coastal plain and mountains of central Vietnam (Annam), while North Vietnam includes the Red River delta and its hinterland (Tonkin).

CULTURE, LANGUAGE, FOOD: Most Vietnamese live in small rural villages and towns. Racial minorities in the lowlands of South Vietnam include Chinese (mostly urban dwellers) and Cambodians (mostly farmers). The highlands--some two thirds of the country's land area--are inhabited by primitive mountain tribesmen (Montagnards) of non-Vietnamese racial background.

The Vietnamese--known historically as Annamites (after their empire of Annam)--are physically of Southern Mongoloid stock, akin to the Chinese; their cultural forms have been influenced by Chinese civilization. Yet, they have created a distinctive national culture.

The religious practices of most Vietnamese are a blend of Mahayana Buddhism and ancestor worship, with strong Taoist and Confucianist influences. In South Vietnam there is an important Roman Catholic minority, numbering nearly 2 million. The Vietnamese language is a tonal tongue, traditionally written in Chinese characters but now using a romanized alphabet. French is widely spoken in government and commercial circles.

Chicken, fish, pork, duck, vegetables, and fruit are basic items in the diet. Rice and a fish sauce called nuoc-mam are included in each meal. Tea is served after the meal.

HOLIDAYS: The Vietnamese New Year, occurring in late January or early February, is an important festive occasion.

HISTORY: Vietnamese civilization originated in the Red River basin, which was ruled as a province of China for more than a thousand years. In A. D. 939 a patriotic rebellion drove out the Chinese, and the country remained independent under its own emperor. Toward the end of the thirteenth century the invading Mongol armies of Kublai Khan were decisively defeated by Vietnamese forces. In the second half of the nineteenth century the French intervened from the south and extended their control over all Vietnamese territory. During World War II the country was under Japanese occupation, with French Vichy representatives running the administration until March 1945. When French troops returned, they found a strong independence movement with considerable Communist leadership. A civil war developed that resulted in the end of French rule. A Communist regime gained control in the north; an independent republic under Ngo Dinh Diem emerged in the south. The military demarcation line that divides the country near the seventeenth parallel was established under the cease-fire agreement concluded between the French and Communist representatives in Geneva in 1954.

REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM (SOUTH)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: South Vietnam, with an area of 65,000 square miles, is roughly the size of New England and has a population estimated at 18 million in 1969. About 800,000 are refugees from the Communist North. Saigon, the capital city, combines French and Oriental features and has tree-lined boulevards and modern buildings. It is a major river port, near the southeast coast, handling seagoing trade. Its Chinese quarter, Cholon, is a large commercial center. The population of Saigon is now around 3 million (including Cholon).

ECONOMY: South Vietnam is primarily an agricultural country. Rice, the main food and cash crop, is exported in normal times. Rubber, the principal plantation crop, has declined as an export, due to the war. There are some small-scale manufacturing and processing industries in the Saigon-Cholon area, but most consumer goods are imported.

Communist guerrilla activity in the countryside and the build-up of anti-Communist military forces have had serious economic consequences. South Vietnam's economy is dependent on U.S. aid for financing most imports, and its armed forces rely on U.S. aid for military equipment and training.

GOVERNMENT: South Vietnam became a republic in October 1955, following a referendum that deposed former emperor Bao Dai as chief of state. From 1956 to 1963 the republic was governed under a strong president and a legislative assembly. Ngo Dinh Diem, the first president, was reelected in 1961 but ultimately alienated many influential groups. In November 1963 the Diem regime was overthrown by a military coup, and the 1956 constitution was abrogated. Military juntas controlled the government during 1964, civilian control was restored for a brief interlude in 1964-65, and another military junta assumed control in June 1965. Elections for a constituent assembly were held in September 1966. In 1967 a new constitution was approved. In late 1969 the government was controlled by a military triumvirate: President Nguyen Van Thieu, Vice-President Nguyen Cao Ky, and Premier Tran Thien Khiem.

South Vietnam is a fully independent state, deriving its legitimacy from an agreement concluded in March 1949 between Bao Dai and the French. It is not a member of the UN due to Soviet opposition, but it has been accorded membership in several of the UN's specialized agencies.

EDUCATION: The public school system was established along French lines but has undergone considerable reorganization in recent years. The U. S. assistance program has contributed to the construction of village classrooms as well as the expansion of technical school facilities and teacher-training institutions. Higher education is available at the University of Saigon and newer universities at Hue (1959) and Dalat (1960).

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF VIETNAM (NORTH)

SIZE, POPULATION, CITIES: North Vietnam has an area of 61, 000 square miles and an estimated 21. 5 million population (1969). Hanoi, the capital (population 414, 000), was the capital of French Indo China. A commercial center, Hanoi lies about 80 miles north of the port of Haiphong.

ECONOMY: Although there is much industry, North Vietnam has an agricultural economy. Rice is the major crop in normal times. Coal mining is also important.

GOVERNMENT: The constitution, adopted December 31, 1959, is based on Communist principles and calls for reunification of all Vietnam. It provides for a president elected by parliament and a prime minister appointed by the president. President Ho Chi Minh died in 1969; he had held office since 1945.

WESTERN SAMOA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Western Samoa--an island country in the Pacific Ocean--lies about 1,700 miles northeast of New Zealand. American Samoa, a United States territory, lies east of Western Samoa.

Western Samoa, one of the smallest countries in the world, consists of two main islands, Upolu and Savai'i, and several smaller islands. All the islands combined occupy less area than Rhode Island.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The islands of Western Samoa were formed by erupting volcanoes. A volcano on Savai'i is still active and last erupted from 1905 to 1911, covering part of the island with lava rock that is still bare. The islands are fringed with coral reefs.

The island shores are lined with tall, graceful coconut palm trees. The rocky, reddish-brown soil near the coasts is fertile enough to produce bananas, a root plant called taro, and cacao. Further inland, heavy rains have leached the soil, and few food crops can grow there. The high volcanic peaks at the center of the islands are covered with thick tropical rain forests.

The climate is tropical and humid, but the southeast trade winds make it pleasantly mild. The most pleasant months are from May to September, when the temperatures and rainfall are the lowest. Temperatures change little throughout the year, seldom rising above 85 degrees or falling below 75 degrees.

CITIES: Apia (population over 20,000) is the capital, only city, and only port.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 141,000 Samoans are of full Polynesian descent. About 10 percent are of mixed Samoan and European parentage. A few Europeans, Chinese, and persons from other Pacific islands live there also.

Samoan life centers around the family; the people live with relatives in family groups called aiga. The aiga elects a matai who serves as head of the family. Some of the young people resent the matai's power, but the system is still strong. The open-sided fale (houses) have a thatched roof supported by poles. Palm leaf blinds are lowered when it rains. Most of the men and some women wear only a lava-lava (cloth wrapped around the waist like a skirt). Some wear a blouse or shirt with their lava-lava.

Samoans love to dance and to play their own version of cricket, a game learned from the English missionaries. They play cricket with teams that may have from 10 to 300 players--compared to 11 players in the standard game.

Almost all Samoans are Christians; the most important religious groups are the Congregational, Methodist, and Roman Catholic. The people speak Samoan, a Polynesian dialect; educated people speak English. Both are official languages.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Polynesians have lived in Western Samoa for at least 2,000 years, probably coming there from Fiji and the New Hebrides. The Samoans drove out invaders from the Tonga Islands and began forming their own nation 1,000 years ago. Many chiefs ruled the people until a woman--Salamasina--united them in the sixteenth century.

Jacob Roggeveen, a Dutch explorer, was the first European to reach Samoa; he discovered the islands in 1722. Few Europeans visited Samoa until the first mission was established in Savai'i in 1830. Once the Samoans accepted the missionaries, whaling and trading ships began making regular stops there.

Two royal families ruled different parts of Samoa during the mid-nineteenth century, and they fought among themselves over who would rule. Germany, Great Britain, and the United States supported rival groups. In 1899 the three countries agreed that Germany and the United States would divide the islands, and Germany took control of Western Samoa in 1900.

In 1914 a military force from New Zealand occupied German Samoa. After World War I, the League of Nations gave New Zealand a mandate to govern Western Samoa. New Zealand's rule began disastrously. An influenza epidemic struck Western Samoa in 1918 and about 20 percent of the people died. The New Zealand government became more and more unpopular in the 1920's. In 1926 Samoans began refusing to obey the laws or to cooperate with the government.

After World War II the United Nations made Western Samoa a trust territory; New Zealand was asked to begin preparing the islands for independence. In 1957 members of the

Legislative Assembly were elected for the first time; Samoan members controlled the Assembly. A cabinet headed by a Samoan prime minister gained executive powers in 1959. In 1961 the people voted to accept a new constitution, and Western Samoa became independent on January 1, 1962.

GOVERNMENT: Western Samoa's head of state--Malietoa Tanumafili II--holds office for life. When he dies, the Legislative Assembly will elect a head of state every five years from one of Samoa's two royal families. The 47 Assembly members serve three-year terms. Matai elect 45 members; two are elected by people (chiefly Europeans) who do not belong to Samoan family groups. The 45 Assembly members elected by the matai elect the prime minister. The prime minister selects his cabinet from among these Assembly members.

The prime minister and cabinet actually run the government. Laws passed by the Assembly do not go into effect until the head of state approves them. A pulenu'u (head chief) is appointed to represent the government in each village. There are no political parties.

ECONOMY: About 70 percent of the people farm; the chief food crops are bananas, coconuts, breadfruit, and taro. The people also raise pigs and chickens and catch fish for food. Bananas, cacao, and copra are exported.

The average annual income--including government allowances--is about $75. Some of the people work for the government, for traders in Apia, or for the missions. People of mixed Samoan and European descent operate many of the businesses. Western Samoa has few industries; and the country imports some manufactured goods, processed foods, and petroleum products.

EDUCATION: Education is free, but not compulsory. The government operates elementary schools in most villages and also operates a few high schools. Some lessons are given by radio in all government schools. Many children attend mission schools. Some students go abroad for further schooling, mainly to New Zealand. The literacy rate is high--90 percent.

AFRICA

Africa, the second largest continent, is politically the most rapidly changing area in the world today. Four states in Africa were independent before World War II (Egypt, Ethiopia, Liberia, South Africa). Forty new African states emerged to independence in the 19-year period 1951-1969. Thus, as of January 1970, there were 44 independent states in Africa, and these independent states made up 90 percent of Africa's total area and contained about 96 percent of the continent's total population.

In the new countries African leaders are devoting increasing effort to internal problems. As in Asia and Latin America, there are great needs in Africa for popular education, improved health, modernized agriculture, more industrialization, and technical training. Africa south of the Sahara, commonly called Black or Negro Africa, is in particular a composite of a tribal and a colonial past. Most of the existing political boundaries were arbitrarily fixed by European powers in the late nineteenth century and do not correspond to ethnic, geographic, or economic realities of the area. European colonial administration--while it brought the end of tribal wars, developed orderly local government, and increased social benefits--represented for the most part a separate world from the traditional life of the mass of indigenous Africans. Hence, in much of sub-Sahara Africa the progressive withdrawal of European administrators has left a relatively small minority of educated Africans to develop a new political system from diverse modern and traditional elements. In a number of states, steps have been taken since independence to consolidate all political activity into a single, mass party under strong central leadership.

Although most African countries are now independent, political instability and unrest continue in many parts of the continent. Local disruptions have been widespread. Since 1965 government leaders in 17 African states were deposed by military coups d'etat. Independent African governments have pledged to end European domination in the Portuguese territories and in southern Africa.

At the same time, the sense of African unity is being encouraged through intergovernmental associations for regional cooperation. By creating the Organization for African Unity (OAU) in 1963, the African states have established their own machinery for resolving national differences and dealing with mutual problems. The UN Economic Commission for Africa has for several years been fostering multinational planning and joint utilization of resources. In 1965 the African Development Bank was established to finance projects involving groups of states as well as individual countries.

Africa's increasing importance in world affairs can be seen in the United Nations. African states represent more members and more votes than any other continent. African colonial and racial issues often have been debated in the UN. In seeking to develop their resources, African countries benefit from UN grants and from loans made by international agencies. World Bank loans to African states have been substantial.

Many African nations still receive part of their external assistance from European states, notably France and Britain. The pattern of American economic and technical assistance varies from country to country, but on the whole it has been diminishing. Peace Corps volunteers, a distinctive symbol of American assistance, work in countries whose governments request their services and contribute to their maintenance. Several African states are experimenting with aid from the Soviet bloc and Red China, which in Africa are not associated with colonialism.

The African territories still subject to Portuguese, Spanish, and French control are in varying stages of development. The Portuguese territories of Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea are governed as an integral part of the mother country. French territories are limited to Afars and Issas (former French Somaliland), Réunion Island, the Comoro Islands, and some small islands adjacent to Malagasy.

The range of United States interests in contemporary Africa extends beyond the political and economic spheres into the moral sphere. One out of every ten American citizens can claim descent from Africa. What we are doing about our own interracial problem is of intense interest to Africans today and is an area of great concern to visitors coming here from African lands.

NOTES ON AFRICAN FOOD

Material on food and eating customs in North African lands and in the Republic of South Africa has been incorporated in the text of individual country units. For most African visitors from sub-Sahara Africa, it may be noted that there usually are no food restrictions, except that Moslems ordinarily will not eat pork. The staples of diet throughout most parts of Africa south of the Sahara are corn, rice, fish, sweet potatoes, meat, and poultry. Beef and lamb are preferred meats, but the most popular main dish is chicken. Many older Africans chew the bones for dental hygiene. All vegetables are acceptable, especially the chewy kinds. Corn is a particular favorite, while white potatoes usually are a welcome change from sweet potatoes for African visitors. Although a great deal of coffee is grown in Africa, it is not a popularly accepted drink there; visitors from British-influenced areas usually prefer tea. In most instances iced tea, when served with a meal, will be left untouched. As a general rule, Africans use little or no alcohol. Very few older visitors take anything stronger than American beer, but some of the younger visitors follow American customs in regard to the use of stronger spirits.

ALGERIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The independent republic of Algeria, situated in northwestern Africa, has a 650-mile Mediterranean coastline; its territory extends southward into the Sahara Desert for over 1,000 miles. On the west Algeria is bordered by Morocco and the Spanish Sahara; on the east by Tunisia and Libya; on the south by Mauritania, Mali, and Niger.

Territorially, the Algerian Republic occupies nearly 920,000 square miles, which makes it the second largest state on the African continent, exceeded in area only by the Republic of Sudan. Over 85 percent of Algeria's territory lies in the Sahara Desert. The settled region in the north, between the Mediterranean and the Sahara, has an area of 113,000 square miles (about the size of Arizona).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Northern Algeria is crossed by two chains of mountains--the Maritime Atlas and the Saharan Atlas. Between the mountains and the sea is a narrow coastal belt (called the Tell) with rocky sea cliffs, fertile plains, and terraced hills. The coastal belt is the country's chief agricultural area and the site of its largest cities. Farther inland, between the ranges of the Atlas, are high plateaus and upland steppes. The climate of the coastal region is semitropical, with adequate rainfall; the interior plateaus are much drier.

South of the Atlas region stretch the vast territories of the Sahara. In the Saharan region there are expanses of sand dunes and gravel-surfaced plains, as well as depressions that run below sea level, mountain ranges that rise over 9,000 feet, and rocky plateaus that have an average elevation of 2,600 feet. The climate is hot and arid, but sometimes the winters are quite cold. Vegetation and pasturage are found in the scattered oases and around the wadis. Camels, sheep, and goats are the principal domestic animals.

CITIES: Algiers, the capital and largest city (population over 943,000), is the main seaport with an excellent harbor on the Mediterranean. It is an attractive modern city with an old traditional section known as the casbah. Oran, the second largest city, population 430,000, is a Mediterranean port and a major industrial center. Constantine, a commercial center of 253,000 people, uses the nearby port of Philippeville. Bône, population 150,000, is the site of the old Roman city of Hippo, birthplace of St. Augustine. Algeria's urban population has been increasing rapidly, but about two thirds of the country's people are still rural.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 12.8 million Algerians are Moslems, who are descended from the indigenous Berbers or admixtures of Berbers with Arabs. The non-Moslem population includes several thousand persons of European origin and some Jews of varied national background.

In 1961 the European minority, according to French estimates, numbered 1 million, mostly the descendants of French, Spanish, Italian, and Maltese immigrants who settled in Algeria during the preceding century. After Algeria received its independence in 1962, over 90 percent of the Europeans left the country.

Arabic is spoken by most of the population and is now the official language. French is also spoken by many Algerian Moslems, as well as Europeans. A substantial part of the population, living in the northern mountains and in the Sahara region, speak Berber dialects and follow Berber social customs. The Kabyles, who live in a mountainous region between Algeria and Constantine, are one of the main Berber groups, numbering nearly a million.

The literacy rate is estimated at 10 to 15 percent.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The coastal region of Algeria has been controlled by successive foreign invaders--Phoenicians, Romans, Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, and Turks. The most enduring cultural imprint was made by the Arab invasions of the seventh and eleventh century A.D., which brought the region under the influence of Islam and added a new ethnic strain to the local Berber inhabitants. In the Turkish era Algiers derived most of its income from operations of the Barbary pirates and was subjected to occasional punitive expeditions by Western powers, including the United States.

French troops occupied Algiers in 1830, took over other Algerian ports, and conquered the rest of northern Algeria from 1840 to 1879. In 1848 northern Algeria was proclaimed an integral part of France, and in the 1870's it was organized into three French provinces (departments) under the Ministry of Interior. The Sahara region was not brought under effective French control until the first decade of the twentieth century.

French policy encouraged European settlement, and over the years many Frenchmen and other Europeans migrated to Algeria, where they developed farms on fertile land, built modern enterprises, and worked in the cities. The persistence of economic and political disparities between the European settlers (colons) and the Algerian Moslems and settler opposition to full equality for the Moslem majority contributed to the nationalist revolt of 1954-62.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Algeria received its independence from France on July 3, 1962, after seven years of revolution against French rule. A power struggle then developed among the Algerian Moslem nationalists who had initiated and led the revolution. The group heading the provisional government lost power to Ahmed Ben Bella. With army support, Ben Bella's Political Bureau gained control of the ruling party (National Liberation Front) in August 1962 and designated the candidates for a national constituent assembly. When the assembly met in September 1962, it named Ben Bella to head the first regular government of independent Algeria.

In September 1963 a constitution was adopted by popular referendum, and Ben Bella was elected president of the Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria. The Algerian constitution provided for a one-party state, and the National Liberation Front nominated all candidates for a new national assembly elected in September 1964. On June 19, 1965, President Ben Bella was deposed in a coup d'etat by the army; and Algeria's vice-president and minister of defense, Col. Houari Boumedienne, took control of the government and suspended the national assembly.

GOVERNMENT: Since June 1965, the supreme policy-making organ of government in Algeria has been the National Revolutionary Council, composed of 26 men who played important roles in the armed struggle for Algerian independence. Col. Houari Boumedienne is president of the Council as well as prime minister and minister of defense in the cabinet. The 1963 constitution has been suspended, and Algeria is in a state of constitutional transition. The National Liberation Front (FLN) remains the country's only legal political party.

RELATIONS WITH THE U. S.: On June 6, 1967, Algeria broke diplomatic relations with the United States in connection with the outbreak of the Arab-Israeli hostilities. Guinea is Algeria's protecting power in the United States; Switzerland is the United States's protecting power in Algeria.

ECONOMY: Algeria's economy is based on agriculture and mining, with various industrial enterprises concentrated around Algiers and Oran. Before independence about 70 percent of the population was engaged in agriculture. Most rural Moslems were engaged in subsistence farming or stock raising; many of them worked as tenants or laborers on the large European-owned estates that produced the bulk of the commercial crops (grain, wine grapes, citrus fruit, and vegetables). Today, about 65 percent of the population depend on agriculture for a livelihood.

Iron ore and phosphates, mined in the north, are important mineral exports. In the mid-1950's, large deposits of natural gas and large reserves of oil were discovered in the Sahara: gas at Hassi-R' Mel, oil around Edjeleh and Hassi-Messaoud. Since then commercial production has been developed, and pipelines have been built to connect the Saharan fields with northern cities and ports. Agreements signed with France in 1962 and 1965 provide for joint Algerian-French exploitation of Saharan minerals.

Although oil, gas, and iron ore are major assets for development, the Algerian government has been confronted with grave economic problems in the postindependence period. The mass departure of Europeans after independence disrupted economic activity and deprived the country of important technical skills, administrative experience, and investment capital. The number of unemployed persons reached over 2 million in 1962-63. Many urban European business enterprises and farms were nationalized during 1963. The nationalized farms and enterprises now are managed by peasant or worker committees and have state-appointed directors. External economic aid has been provided mainly by France and the Soviet Union. In 1968 an oil exploration agreement was signed with a United States oil company.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 1 marks the beginning of the Algerian revolution against French rule in 1954.

BOTSWANA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked country in the center of southern Africa, Botswana has an estimated area of 238,800 square miles--about the size of Texas. It is bounded on the south and east by the Republic of South Africa, on the northeast by Rhodesia and Zambia, and on the west and north by South West Africa.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Botswana is hot and dry--a vast tableland with a mean altitude of 3,300 feet. The Kalahari Desert is the southern hemisphere's equivalent to the Sahara. It is a plain with grassy, sandy areas supporting nomadic bushmen and a few wild animals. It spreads over the southwestern areas.

In the northwest the Okovanggo River flows from Angola into a region called Ngamiland and forms a great inland swamp called the Okovanggo Basin. The best-watered pastureland lies in eastern Botswana.

The climate is hot in summer and warm in winter. Temperatures average from 70 degrees to 80 degrees. Rainfall is irregular, and droughts are common.

CITIES: Gaberones, the capital (population 50,000), lies in the southeast near the South African border. A railroad links Gaberones with Rhodesia and South Africa. The largest towns are Serowe and Kanye, with populations of 35,000 each.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Botswana's estimated 636,000 population (1969) are indigenous Africans called Batswana, who speak Bantu languages. They are divided into eight main tribal groupings. Each has its own tribal areas, the largest of which is the Bamangwato--centered at Serowe and comprising two fifths of the population. About 25,000 Bushmen live in the country and speak a language characterized by clicking sounds. There are small numbers of non-Africans--Europeans, Asians, Colored.

During the dry winter season (June-October) the people live in towns. After the first rains in November or December, they move to farms as far as 30 miles from their villages to plant crops for spring harvesting. Most people live in the eastern part of the country; about half in villages of 1,000 or more.

English is the official language.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Little is known of Botswana before the European epoch. David Livingstone began his explorations in the area in 1841. Throughout most of the nineteenth century trouble between the European settlers and native tribes caused suffering and instability.

In 1885 Britain brought about half of what is now Botswana into the Bechuanaland Protectorate--while at the same time establishing British Bechuanaland (now part of South Africa). A British High Commissioner, resident in Pretoria, governed the Bechuanaland Protectorate along with Swaziland and Lesotho (Basutoland). Prior to independence they were known as High Commission Territories.

GOVERNMENT: Sir Seretse Khama, a leader of the Bamangwato, became prime minister as a result of the country's first general election in 1965. On September 30, 1966, the country gained independence, with Sir Seretse as president. Of the 35-member National Assembly, 31 are elected by the people and 4 are elected by the Assembly itself. The president appoints a vice-president and six cabinet ministers. The House of Chiefs advises the government on tribal matters. A general election is planned for late 1969.

ECONOMY: Botswana is an underdeveloped country; about a fifth of the adults work in South Africa and other neighboring countries. Cattle raising, the chief industry, suffered the effects of a five-year drought which ended in 1966-67. Meat and live cattle form 90 percent of all exports, most of which go to South Africa. Corn, sorghum, beans, and peanuts are raised in the north.

Exploration has begun of large copper and nickel deposits discovered in 1967. Coal and diamonds also exist. The country's few good roads and the only railroad are in the east.

EDUCATION: About half the children of school age receive some elementary school education. Because many boys spend their youth herding cattle, about two thirds of all children in school are girls. There are three secondary schools which stress agricultural training. The Botswana campus of the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland (UBLS) provides for advanced education.

FOOD: The diet varies with the time of year. Around harvest time, milk and vegetables are plentiful; but most of the time millet and corn are the chief foods.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 30, Independence Day.

BURUNDI

LOCATION AND SIZE: Burundi--a landlocked country the size of Maryland in east central Africa--is 1,200 miles from the Atlantic Ocean and 700 miles from the Indian Ocean. It lies directly east of the Kivu Province of the Republic of the Congo (Kinshasa). Rwanda is to the north; Tanzania to the east and south. It has an area of 10,700 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Burundi consists mainly of grassy uplands and high plateaus. Much of the land is overgrazed and eroded. The western border runs along the Great Rift Valley, which contains the northern part of Lake Tanganyika and the Rusizi River. The northwestern part of the country rises to over 8,800 feet.

Plateaus bordered by escarpments cover central and eastern Burundi; swamps lie at the foot of the escarpments. Although woodlands once covered most of the plateaus, the land has been cleared for farming. The rainy season generally lasts from February to May. The climate is cool and pleasant.

CITIES: Bujumbura, the capital and largest city (population 60,000), is located on Lake Tanganyika and has an international airport. Most of its population is Congolese. The country is virtually without villages since families live in steep hillside huts next to their banana patches.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Of the total 3.4 million population (1969 estimate), 84 percent are Bahutu tribesmen, who practice subsistence farming. About 15 percent are Watusi, an aristocratic people famed for their cattle culture. The Bahutu were once slaves who farmed for the Watusi in exchange for protection.

Burundi is one of the smallest and most crowded countries in Africa--with over 323 persons to the square mile. Almost half the people are Roman Catholics; the rest practice traditional animist religions.

French and Kirundi are the official languages. Kirundi is a Bantu language. Swahili is also widely used.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Little is known of Burundi's early history. The Watusi migrated from the north in the late fourteenth century and defeated the Bahutu. In 1897 the Germans conquered what is now Burundi and Rwanda (then known as Ruanda-Urundi). It became a League of Nations mandate following World War I administered by the king of Belgium. In 1946 the United Nations made Ruanda-Urundi a trusteeship territory. In 1961 Urundi voted to become the independent monarchy of Burundi and Ruanda voted to become the Republic of Rwanda. The two became independent on July 1, 1962.

Relations between the two countries are strained.

GOVERNMENT: At the time of independence the country's monarch was Mwame Mwambutsa IV. In July 1966 the king's son deposed him and appointed Colonel Michel Micombero as premier. In a coup d'etat November 1966, Micombero overthrew the new king, established Burundi as a republic, and named himself president.

ECONOMY: Burundi has few minerals and little industry. The soil has been weakened by heavy rainfall, erosion, and poor farming methods. Because Burundi lies so far inland, transportation of goods for overseas trade is costly. There are no railroads.

Coffee is the main crop and export. Tin is also exported in small amounts.

EDUCATION: Christian missionaries operate most of the schools. The law provides education free for children from 6 to 16 years of age but facilities are lacking.

FOOD: Fish--mainly caught in Lake Tanganyika--is an important food. Beans, corn, manioc, and sweet potatoes are diet staples. The Watusi raise cattle for almost all their food needs. They live on meat, milk, and milk products.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 1, Independence Day.

CAMEROON

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Federal Republic of Cameroon is an independent African country comprised of territories formerly under French and British administration. A triangular-shaped country with a total area of 183,000 square miles, it lies on the Gulf of Guinea at the crook of the African bulge and extends northward to Lake Chad. On the west Cameroon is bordered by Nigeria; on the east and south its neighbors are Chad, the Central African Republic, the Congo (Brazzaville), and Gabon; on the southeast it is bordered by the Rio Muni province of Equatorial Guinea.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Cameroon has several contrasting geographical regions. The southern half of the country, an area of humid coastal plains and dense equatorial forests, contrasts with the drier and cooler treeless scrub area of the north. The Adamaoua plateau lying in the center of the country ranges from 2,000 to over 4,000 feet, while the forested mountain area of the west has peaks rising over 8,000 feet.

CITIES: The largest city and main port is Douala, population about 200,000. Its excellent harbor has a capacity of a million tons, and over 1,200 ships are handled annually. Yaoundé, the federal capital, has about 101,000 residents and is an inland city of the south. Buea is the administrative capital of the English-speaking section of the country.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Significant regional differences exist among the country's 5.4 million inhabitants. The Bantu-speaking people of the south, comprising about one third of the population, are mainly farmers and traders, largely Christian in religion. The pastoral Fulani of the plateau region and various Hamitic and Semitic peoples farther north are Moslem, while other tribes of the north and most of the Bamileke in the southwest are animist.

Over 200 different tribes have been distinguished in Cameroon, including some pygmy groups. Because of this ethnic diversity the country is often called the racial crossroads of Africa. About 20,000 Europeans, mainly French, and several hundred Americans also live in the country. French and English are the official languages of government and education.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The original German protectorate of Kamerun (1884-1914) was divided following World War I--four fifths mandated to France, one fifth to England. In 1946 both areas became UN trust territories. In French Cameroun political parties were recognized in 1946 with the establishment of a territorial assembly. A measure of autonomy followed in 1957 under the French Union. A year late the Cameroun assembly voted for independence on January 1, 1960, securing the approval of both France and the UN General Assembly. British Cameroon consisted of two small strips of land between Nigeria and French Cameroun. In UN plebiscites of February 1961, the northern half of British Cameroon voted to become a part of Nigeria, while the southern half voted to unite with French Cameroun. Thus, on October 1, 1961, the Federal Republic of Cameroon was formed, the French section becoming the state of East Cameroon and the British section becoming the state of West Cameroon. In the new Federal Republic, Ahmadou Ahidjo (of the East) became president and John Foncha (of the West) became vice-president. A presidential election will take place early in 1970.

GOVERNMENT: The federal constitution gives the president broad powers to appoint federal ministers, designate chief executives of the state governments, and dissolve federal and state legislatures. He is the commander-in-chief of the armed forces and may invoke emergency powers. To protect the interests of the smaller state (West Cameroon), the constitution provides that the president and vice-president may not be from the same state. The federal legislature is a unicameral assembly of 50 deputies, 40 elected from East Cameroon and 10 elected from West Cameroon. Politically, the trend is toward a one-party system. In September 1966 the three political parties in West Cameroon merged with the dominant party in East Cameroon to form a single, national party called the Union Nationale Camerounaise.

ECONOMY: Most of Cameroon's people are engaged in subsistence farming, livestock raising, and forestry. To combat a rural exodus, a program of resettlement of unemployed persons on farms began in 1968. Agricultural products account for four fifths of all exports. Cocoa, coffee, bananas, cotton, tropical woods, and rubber lead the export trade. The coffee, bananas, and rubber are grown on plantations. Local cotton, tobacco, and lumber industries were started by the French. The most important industrial enterprise is the Edea hydroelectric scheme on the Sanaga River, which is the basis for a large aluminum processing plant that began operations in 1957 with alumina imported from France and Guinea. Extensive bauxite deposits have been discovered in the Adamaoua region of East Cameroon. There are plans for sugarcane plantations and a refinery at Mbandjock.

EDUCATION: Primary education is being adapted to local needs, but secondary, technical, and normal schools in East Cameroon still follow the French curriculum. In 1968 a number of mission schools, which outnumber public schools, were turned over to the government. The Institut National d'Etudes Supérieures at Yaoundé has been expanded into a university, the Université Federale du Cameroon.

The government is placing emphasis on education for girls and fundamental literacy education. Because the federal republic is officially bilingual, the schools place stress on teaching English to French-speaking students and vice-versa.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 1, Independence Day.

CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

LOCATION AND SIZE: Before 1958, the Central African Republic was known as the Ubangi-Shari territory of French Equatorial Africa. A landlocked country with an area of 241,000 square miles (nearly as large as Texas), the republic lies in the geographic heart of Africa. It is bordered on the west by Cameroon, on the north by Chad, on the east by Sudan, and on the south by Congo (Brazzaville) and the Congo Democratic Republic.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Territorially, the republic is a high, rolling plateau, broken in the northeast by hills rising over 4,000 feet. The southern portion of the plateau is covered by tropical rain forest, which gives way in the north to grassy savanna. The most important rivers are the Ubangi, a tributary of the Congo, and the Shari, which flows north across the border to Lake Chad. The climate is generally hot and humid; the driest period is from March through May, the wettest from June to October.

CITIES: The republic's capital and largest urban center is Bangui, population about 237,000, a major African river port at the northern terminal of the Congo-Ubangi water highway (whose southern terminal is Brazzaville in the Congo). Other major towns are Berberati (population 38,000), Bambari (31,000), Bouar (27,000), Bangassou (27,000), and M'Baiki (16,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population of the Central African Republic (estimated at 2 million) includes 6,500 Europeans and several large African groups, including the Baya-Mandjia, the Banda, and the Sara. Each African tribal group has its own language, but a commercial tongue--sangho--is used in all parts of the country. French is the official language and is also widely spoken. About 27 percent of the people adhere to animist religions, but 68 percent have been converted to Christianity by Catholic and Protestant missions. Along the border with Chad 5 percent follow the tenets of Islam. All but 14 percent of the people are rural dwellers.

POLITICAL HISTORY: This region of Africa was explored in the late nineteenth century as part of the French effort to expand their control northward from the Brazzaville area of the Congo to Lake Chad. From 1910 to 1958 the territory of Ubangi-Shari was linked with Chad, Gabon, and the Congo in the administrative unit called French Equatorial Africa. On December 1, 1958, Ubangi-Shari proclaimed itself the Central African Republic and became an autonomous member of the French Community. The new republic declared full independence on August 13, 1960. Since then it has maintained close ties with France.

GOVERNMENT: On January 1, 1966, Colonel Jean-Bedel Bokassa, army chief of staff, deposed President David Dacko and took control of the government. The constitution of 1959-60 has been abrogated and the National Assembly dissolved. In addition to being head of state and government, President Bokassa has taken responsibility for the Ministries of Interior, Defense, and Information as well as being president of the MESAN. He is advised by a cabinet of 17 members.

Only one political party, the MESAN (Mouvement d'Evolution Sociale de l'Afrique Noire), has been functioning since 1962. Under Dacko's leadership, opposition parties were banned; and the ruling MESAN was made the official party for the entire country. Both Dacko and Bokassa are nephews of MESAN's founder, Barthelemy Boganda, who died in 1959.

ECONOMY: The republic has an agricultural economy; most people are engaged in small-scale subsistence farming. Diamonds are the main export. Important export crops are cotton, coffee, and peanuts. Much government effort has been devoted to stimulating new cash crops and organizing agricultural cooperatives. As a result of a major productivity campaign, cotton production increased by 60 percent in 1967 over the previous year. Manufacturing showed a 20 percent gain in 1967, and a large textile mill is under construction in Bangui. Since the country is more than 300 miles from the sea and has no railroads, it depends on river, road, and air transport.

EDUCATION: In the ten-year period 1955-65 primary school enrollment went from 32,000 to 128,000 and secondary enrollment from 615 to 3,800. There is no university. The school system is based on that of France. The estimated literacy rate is 18.1 percent.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: December 1 is celebrated as independence day.

CHAD

LOCATION AND SIZE: Over 1,500 miles from any seaport and difficult to reach except by air, Chad is the largest and most populous country of former French Equatorial Africa. Chad's 500,000 square miles of territory--an area twice the size of Texas--stretch between Libya on the north and the Central African Republic on the south. Chad is bordered by Sudan on the east and by Cameroon, Nigeria, and Niger on the west.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Chad includes three major geographic zones--part of the barren Sahara Desert in the north, bordered by a large semidesert region, followed by a zone of broad grasslands in the south. The most outstanding features of the land are the Tibesti mountains, rising from 4,000 to 12,000 feet in the Sahara, and Lake Chad, a great shallow lake surrounded by marshes and overlapping the borders with Niger and Nigeria. The lake is fed by southern streams, mainly the Shari and Logone rivers. The climate varies according to region; the south has more moderate temperatures and greater rainfall (average 30 inches) than the rest of the country.

CITIES: Very few of Chad's people are urban dwellers. The capital and main city is Fort Lamy (population about 99,000), situated south of Lake Chad. The only other large towns are Moundou (population 25,000), Fort Archamboult (18,000), and Abéché (8,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Chad's 3.3 million population includes many ethnic groups. The original Negro elements have been altered over the centuries by Arab invasions from the north and by intermarriage. The major ethnic and religious distinction today is between the Arabized Moslem peoples of the north and central regions and the animist-Christian Bantu peoples of the south. The Moslem peoples total over 1.4 million; the most important groups are the Arabs and the Fulani (herdsmen with kin in northern Nigeria). The largest non-Moslem tribe--the Saras--numbers about 1 million; they are mainly farmers in the southern river valleys. Various tribal languages are spoken, but Arabic serves as a unifying language among the Moslems. French is the language of government and is taught in most schools.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The first European explorers reached the Chad region in the nineteenth century. French efforts to unite their possessions in West Africa with equatorial acquisitions in Gabon and Congo led to the establishment of French military control in Chad between 1890 and 1900. From 1920 to 1958 Chad was one of four territories grouped together in the administrative unit called French Equatorial Africa. This unit was dissolved when each of the constituent territories became autonomous republics of the French Community at the end of 1958. Chad proclaimed its complete independence on August 11, 1960. It still maintains close ties with France.

GOVERNMENT: Under its constitution of March 1962, the Republic of Chad is headed by an elected president who serves both as chief of state and chief executive and possesses broad powers. President Francois Tombalbaye has served since independence. Members of the National Assembly are elected by universal suffrage. Political parties have been merged into the Parti Progressiste Tchadien, and the constitution has been amended to drop the multiparty system.

ECONOMY: The national budget for 1969 was $50 million. Most of the people are engaged in herding or farming. Cotton is the leading export, followed by cattle, hides, and meat. It is estimated that Chad has the largest livestock population in tropical Africa. There is no significant industrial or mining enterprise. Chad has no railroads, and river traffic is limited to the rainy season. Cotton, frozen meat, and fish (from Lake Chad) are exported by air. Most manufactured goods are also imported by air. A road linking Chad to the Mediterranean coast in Libya will begin in 1970.

EDUCATION: School enrollment is largely at the primary level. Education on the metropolitan French standard was introduced about 1950, and French is the principal language of instruction. Expansion of modern schooling is hindered by the scattered and partly nomadic nature of the population.

CONGO REPUBLIC (BRAZZAVILLE)

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Congo, with its capital at Brazzaville, was formerly the Middle Congo of French Equatorial Africa. It is a long narrow country jutting inward from the Atlantic coast between Gabon on the west and the Congo Democratic Republic (the former Belgian Congo) on the east. Much of its border with the latter country follows the Congo and Ubangi Rivers. Its other major neighbors are the Central African Republic on the north and Cameroon on the northwest. It covers 132,000 square miles of territory.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A low treeless coastal plain extends about 40 miles inland to the Mayombe Escarpment, a region of tropical forest and steep mountain ridges. Beyond the mountains is the Niari River Valley, an important agricultural area. Most of the central interior consists of a series of dry grassy plateaus (over 50,000 square miles of territory). The Congo basin in the northeast is a largely impassable flood plain covered by dense tropical rain forest. The Congo River itself is navigable above Stanley Pool and Brazzaville, but a series of cataracts below Stanley Pool bars continuous transportation from the interior to the sea. The country has a tropical climate, with high humidity and an average temperature between 70 degrees and 80 degrees.

CITIES: The two major cities, Brazzaville (136,000) and Pointe Noire (74,000), contain about one fourth of the people. Brazzaville, long the administrative center of all French Equatorial Africa, contains the most modern medical and educational facilities of the area. The city lies directly across the Congo River from Kinshasa (formerly Leopoldville), capital city of the other Congo republic. Rapid ferry service connects the two capitals; the crossing takes about 30 minutes. A major river port, Brazzaville is linked with the ocean port of Pointe Noire by the 320-mile Congo-Ocean railroad.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The country's 885,000 population includes about 10,000 Europeans and several different African groups subdivided into numerous tribes. Two of the major ethnic groups are the Bateke and the M'Bochi, chiefly hunters and fishermen living north of Brazzaville. Nearly half of the people, however, are farmers and tradesmen, living in the southwest between Brazzaville and the coast. The Bakongo ethnic group is predominant both in the Brazzaville area and in the capital city of the Congo Democratic Republic across the river. The large forest zone of the extreme north is inhabited only by the small Sangha tribes and some pygmies. Except for the pygmies, all the country's tribes speak related Bantu tongues. French is the official language and is taught in the schools. Most of the population still follow animist religions, although there are some Christian areas.

POLITICAL HISTORY: The Portuguese were the first Europeans to discover this part of Africa in the fifteenth century, and French traders sought slaves and ivory along the coast in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. France acquired official control over the area known as the Middle Congo in the 1880's, largely through the efforts of the explorer Savorgnam de Brazza. From 1919 to 1958 this area was one of four colonial territories that made up the administrative unit called French Equatorial Africa. At the end of 1958, Middle Congo and the other three territories of French Equatorial Africa became autonomous republics within the larger French Community. On August 15, 1960, the Republic of the Congo proclaimed its complete independence. Since independence, it has retained close ties with France.

GOVERNMENT: Following an uprising in August 1963, President Fulbert Youlou resigned; and a committee of army and labor leaders installed a provisional government with Alphonse Massamba-Debat as prime minister. In December 1963 a new constitution was approved by referendum, and general elections were held. Massamba-Debat became president. In July 1968 a military-led coup installed the Conseil National de la Révolution (CNR) as the supreme state authority. At year's end Major Marien Ngouabi, president of CNR, became president of the Congo. National elections were promised for 1969. The National Movement for the Revolution (MNR) is the country's only political party.

ECONOMY: With the Congo-Ocean railroad and the port of Pointe Noire, Brazzaville is equipped to serve as a transit center for exports from Chad, the Central African Republic, and the other Congo. The country's position as a transit area is further enhanced by a rail link with Gabon, permitting export of Gabon's manganese through Pointe Noire.

Apart from transportation and commercial activities, Congo-Brazzaville has an agricultural economy. About two thirds of the population is engaged in subsistence farming. Agricultural exports include modest amounts of coffee, palm kernels, bananas, peanuts, and lumber. Lead ore is mined for export, potash has recently been discovered, and oil production was begun at Pointe Noire in 1960. A large hydroelectric scheme along the Kouilou River in the southwest is being planned with French assistance. Substantial Soviet aid has been flowing into the country.

EDUCATION: The republic's educational system is based on that of France. About three fourths of the children attend school; most are enrolled in primary grades. Beyond the primary level there are some technical schools, teacher-training colleges, and academic secondary schools with curriculum similar to that of France. There is a center of higher studies in Brazzaville.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: August 15 is celebrated as Independence Day. November 1 marks the anniversary of the Proclamation of the Republic.

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Congo occupies 905,000 square miles of territory in the heart of equatorial Africa. Its neighbors are the Central African Republic and Sudan on the north; Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, and Tanzania on the east; Zambia and Angola on the south; and Congo (Brazzaville) on the west.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Landlocked except for 25 miles of Atlantic coastline, the Congo is a basin country within central Africa's high plateau. The northeastern and southern parts of the country are high rolling grasslands supporting abundant wildlife. The three regions of greatest economic value are the Kivu highlands where many plantations are located, the southeastern Katanga mineral belt, and the southwestern Kasai area famous for industrial diamonds. Beginning in Orientale province, the River Congo flows 1,900 miles to the Atlantic. It provides fertile plains and great water-power potential, but cataracts and waterfalls interrupt its use as a water highway and necessitate transhipment of goods by land between navigable portions. The Congo is one of the few areas in Africa where extensive tropical rain forests or jungles are found. The climate is hot and humid in the low-lying western regions but fairly temperate in the higher eastern regions.

CITIES: The Congo's capital, which the Belgians developed and named Leopoldville after King Leopold II, was officially renamed Kinshasa by the Congolese government on July 1, 1966. Its population is now estimated at around 1 million. Situated on the Congo River near Stanley Pool, Kinshasa is directly across the river from Brazzaville, capital of the other Congo Republic, a former French dependency. Elizabethville, principal city of the Congo's southeastern mining area with a population of over 230,000, is now called Lubumbashi. Stanleyville in the northeast is called Kisangani. The main port for ocean vessels is Matadi, located 95 miles from the Atlantic Ocean on the Congo River.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Before independence in 1960 about 110,000 Europeans lived in the Congo. Most were Belgians who worked as government officials, businessmen, technicians, or missionaries.

Most of the 15 million Congolese people are Bantu and a substantial minority are Sudanese. There are also smaller Nilotic, Hamitic, and pygmy groups. Although the country has 200 different tribes speaking 38 separate main languages, the principal tongues are Lingala, Swahili, Kikango, and Tshiluba. Educated Congolese speak French, the predominant European language in the Belgian era. Many traditional tribal religions are practiced in the Congo, but Catholic and Protestant missionary work has been intensive. Congolese Christians now number well over 5 million.

Most of the Congolese live in traditional, rural societies. Urban Congolese live in "African Cities" within the greater city, although since independence senior Congolese officials occupy former European homes. Belgian colonial policy provided Africans with opportunities for social and economic advancement but long isolated them from political affairs. Thus, a class of urban workers, business clerks, and government employees developed; and from this middle class have come the postindependence leaders.

MODERN HISTORY: Stanley's explorations in the 1870's first brought news of the Congo's wealth to the West. Leopold II of Belgium established the Congo Free States as his own private domain, and from 1885 to 1908 the territory was ruled by commercial companies to which he sold rights. The cruel treatment of the natives became a moral concern to the world by the early 1900's, and as a result of an investigation the territory was annexed to Belgium in 1908. From that date onward, it was the policy of the Belgian government to protect the Africans against exploitation and to introduce social reforms.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: City council elections in December 1957 were the first step toward popular government. During 1959 Congolese groups pressed demands for full immediate independence. In January 1960, the Belgian government agreed that the Congo should attain independence on June 30, 1960.

The first national elections were held in May 1960 with over 20 political groups participating. The group led by Patrice Lumumba won the most seats in the new parliament, and Lumumba became the country's first prime minister. Joseph Kasavubu was elected first president of the Republic by parliament.

Immediately after independence, civil strife and disorder made the Congo a focus of international concern. A UN Force, composed of some 20,000 troops from small states, was assembled in the Congo to maintain order; and UN civilian technicians were sent to replace departed Belgian personnel. The last UN troops were withdrawn in mid-1964.

GOVERNMENT: A coalition government under the moderate leadership of Prime Minister Cyrille Adoula emerged in mid-1961, after the death of Lumumba. In 1964 rebellion against the national government erupted in Kwilu province and, after the withdrawal of UN troops on June 30, spread throughout the eastern Congo. The rebellion was subdued by the Congolese National Army. Moise Tshombe was appointed prime minister in July 1964 by President Kasavubu.

A new constitution providing for a presidential form of government was promulgated in 1964, replacing the Fundamental Law of 1960. It gave broad executive power to the president, but retained the post of prime minister and the two houses of parliament (National Assembly). Elections for the National Assembly were held early in 1965, and a grouping of Prime Minister Tshombe's supporters won a majority in both houses. When the new Assembly met in October, President Kasavubu dismissed Tshombe from office, and a political struggle developed over formation of a new government.

In November 1965 President Kasavubu was deposed in a coup by Lt. General Joseph Mobutu, head of the Congolese Army. Mobutu named himself president for a five-year period and announced that he would rule by decrees having the force of law unless rejected by the National Assembly. Under President Mobutu political stability and economic progress has returned to the Congo.

ECONOMY: Most Congolese are dependent on subsistence agriculture, with occasional earnings from cash crops. At the time of independence, however, the Congo was the most economically developed country in tropical Africa. Many Congolese were working in the mines and on plantations producing coffee, palm products, and rubber. Others were occupied as construction and transport workers, technical assistants, and office employees.

The Congo is rich in mineral resources. Before independence it produced about 70 percent of the world's industrial diamonds, 60 percent of its cobalt, and about 10 percent of its copper and tin. It also was a source of high-grade uranium. Industrial activities center on the processing of agricultural and forestry products and the smelting of mineral ores.

INTERNATIONAL AID: The UN has continued to provide technical assistance in the Congo. The U.S. has furnished major financial support for UN military and civilian programs in the Congo and has supplied additional assistance on a direct, bilateral basis. During the first four years of Congolese independence, U.S. aid, including contributions through the UN, totaled over $400 million. Belgium has resumed technical assistance on a large scale.

EDUCATION: Belgian policy stressed primary education for Africans, and at the time of independence the Congo had one of the highest rates of primary-school attendance in Africa. Vocational and trade-school training also were provided. Opportunities for secondary and higher education, however, were extremely limited, and there were less than 20 university graduates among the Africans of the Congo when independence came in 1960.

Two universities were created in the country shortly before independence: the State University of Elizabethville, in 1956; the University of Lovanium near Leopoldville, in 1954. A third university was formed after independence at Stanleyville.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: Independence Day, June 30.

DAHOMEY

LOCATION AND SIZE: Dahomey occupies a narrow strip of land on the underside of the western bulge of Africa. It has 78 miles of coastline on the Gulf of Guinea, stretches northward about 400 miles to the Niger River, and has a total area of 44, 000 square miles. It is wedged between Nigeria on the east and Togo on the west, with Niger and Upper Volta to the north.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: This small country includes several different geographic zones. Its coastline is flat and sandy, with a lagoon region behind it. Southern--or lower--Dahomey is a clay plateau cut by a swampy depression, scattered hills, and rivers. In the north is a rocky plateau region broken by the Atacora Mountains in the west and tributaries of the Niger in the east. The climate varies regionally but is generally hot with alternating dry and rainy seasons. Humidity is very high in the south and decreases northward.

CITIES: Porto Novo, Dahomey's capital (population over 65, 000), is situated along a lagoon near the border with Nigeria. Cotonou, the commercial center and only port, has a population of about 109, 000. Most people are rural dwellers.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Dahomey has around 2. 5 million inhabitants, two thirds of them concentrated in the southern third of the country. Various African peoples account for all but 5, 500 in the population. The largest ethnic groups are the Fon (over 700, 000) and the Yoruba (150, 000) in the south and the Bariba (about 175, 000) in the northwest. French is the official language, supplementing many different African tongues. Most of the people adhere to traditional animist religions. There are about 250, 000 Moslems (mainly in northern Dahomey) and about 200, 000 Christians.

POLITICAL HISTORY: The trading post of Porto Novo was founded in the seventeenth century by Portuguese setting out from Lagos. At that time southern Dahomey was composed of various small, mutually jealous principalities, mostly tributary to the powerful kingdom of Abomey further north. The French began to establish trading relations in the mid-nineteenth century, and Anglo-French rivalry in Porto Novo ended with the establishment of a French protectorate in 1892. French control was established over the interior by 1900, and two years later Dahomey became a component part of French West Africa. Following World War II, Dahomey acquired its first elected territorial assembly and sent a few representatives to the French parliament in Paris. In 1958 it became an autonomous republic within the French community; and in 1960 it achieved independence.

GOVERNMENT: The republic's first constitutional regime was overthrown in October 1963 by Colonel Christophe Soglo. He served as interim chief of state until a new constitution was prepared and a new government was elected. In December 1965 Soglo assumed power for the second time in a bloodless coup d'etat. He was ousted in 1967 by a military group, which installed Emile Derlin Zinsou as president in 1968.

ECONOMY: Seventy-three percent of the $32 million national budget is spent on government salaries. The economy is predominantly agricultural. Millet, corn, yams, and cassava are the chief food crops. Palm kernels and palm oil are the leading exports. In recent years four large mills have been established to extract palm oil from the kernels. A second cash crop is coffee. There is no mining of any consequence. Cattle produced in the north must be supplemented by imports from Niger and Upper Volta. A new seaport has been constructed at Cotonou. Offshore oil exploration is under way.

EDUCATION: About 45 percent of the school age population attends school, the proportion being higher in the coastal region and lower in the interior. The public and private sectors of education have been equally developed in the past, but emphasis is on the development of the public sector. Around one fourth of the government budget is devoted to education.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 1 is celebrated as independence day.

EQUATORIAL GUINEA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Known as Spanish Guinea from 1959 to 1963, Equatorial Guinea has an area of nearly 11,000 square miles--slightly larger than that of Maryland. The country has two provinces: Fernando Po (two islands in the Gulf of Guinea) and Rio Muni on the African coast south of Cameroon and northwest of Gabon.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Province of Fernando Po is made up of two islands--Fernando Po and Annobon. Fernando Po Island, the largest in the Gulf of Guinea, is about 20 miles off the coast of Cameroon. There are two large volcanic formations on the island separated by a valley which crosses the island. Annobon Island is smaller and lies 370 miles to the southwest of Fernando Po Island.

Rio Muni consists largely of tropical rain forest. Its coastal plain is 9 to 15 miles wide, giving way to valleys and then to mountains. It also includes the islands of Corisco, Elobey Grande, Elobey Chico, and adjacent islets.

The climate is tropical with heavy rainfall, high humidity, and frequent changes of season. Violent windstorms and tornados mark the seasonal transition periods.

CITIES: Santa Isabel, the capital (population over 37,000) both of Fernando Po Province and of the nation, is on the coastline and has an excellent harbor. The British founded Santa Isabel in the 1820's under the name of Port Clarence. Bata is on the coast of Rio Muni and is the capital of that Province.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The total population was estimated at 281,000 in 1968. On Fernando Po there are the native Bubis (15,000), Fernandinos (5,000--descendants of immigrant mainlanders from the coast of West Africa), Europeans (5,500--mostly Spaniards), Cameroonians, Portuguese Africans (from São Tomé), Nigerian contract laborers (50,000), and the Fangs (the dominant indigenous group of Rio Muni).

Spanish is the official language, but the use of African dialects and pidgin English is relatively widespread. Roman Catholicism is the predominant religion. There are some Protestants and Muslims. Most of the Nigerians are Protestant.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Portuguese sailors discovered Fernando Po between 1469 and 1474. Portugal retained control of Fernando Po and adjacent islands until 1778, when it was ceded to Spain, which also acquired commercial rights on the African mainland, bringing Rio Muni under Spanish sovereignty. Conflicting claims to the area were settled in favor of Spain by the Treaty of Paris in 1900.

In 1959 Rio Muni and Fernando Po were incorporated into the Spanish metropolitan administrative structure as Spanish Guinea. Rio Muni and Fernando Poo (Spanish form of Fernando Po) were established as overseas provinces, followed by limited powers of self-government.

In 1968 a UN Special Committee requested that Spain join Fernando Po with Rio Muni in a single state, and on October 12, 1968, Equatorial Guinea became independent.

In early 1969 the majority of Spanish residents left the country.

GOVERNMENT: The constitution provides for a strong president and administrative autonomy to the provinces under provincial councils. The president, Francisco Macias Nquema, has a 12-member coalition cabinet. There is a 35-member National Assembly.

ECONOMY: The fertile island of Fernando Po is dependent on coffee and cocoa exports; Rio Muni exports coffee and timber products. Rio Muni and Gabon together have a virtual monopoly of the world production of okume, from which plywood is made. Other less important export crops are bananas and palm oil. There is little industry and no mineral exploitation. Economic assistance is received from Spain.

EDUCATION: School attendance--especially at the primary level--is high in comparison with neighboring countries.

ETHIOPIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Kingdom of Ethiopia, known historically as Abyssinia, is located in East Africa near the meeting of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. Including Eritrea (formerly an Italian colony), its area is estimated to be 455,000 square miles, the size of Texas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico combined. Ethiopia has a coastline on the Red Sea and land borders with Somalia, Kenya, and Sudan.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Ethiopia is a central high plateau divided by the Great Rift Valley and surrounded by desert lowlands. Mountains reaching altitudes of 15,000 feet rise in the center of the plateau. Steep high cliffs on the plateau and dry sandy lowlands have provided natural barriers, helping the country maintain its independence over the years. Ethiopia has a number of inland lakes including Lake Tana, the source of the Blue Nile. The only navigable river is the Baro in the southwest. The weather is temperate in plateau areas and hot in the lowlands. There is little annual variation in temperature, but day and night temperatures vary as much as 30 degrees. Favored by abundant rainfall (except in the semidesert regions), brilliant sunshine, and low humidity, the country is climatically well-suited to agriculture.

CITIES: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia's capital (population of 560,000), is situated over 8,000 feet above sea level. Outstanding attractions are the Emperor's palace and gardens with an adjoining lions' den (one of the Emperor's titles is Lion of Judea). The business section of the city is modern, while its green hills are dotted with many native dwellings. Asmara, the Eritrean capital, has a population of 131,000 and is situated almost as high as Addis Ababa. Built by the Italians, it has many ornate buildings and wide streets. Axum, Ethiopia's ancient capital and holy city, is the site of many points of archaeological interest.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The country's population, estimated at 23 million, is ethnically diverse. The Amharas (mountain people) are a mixed Hamitic and Semitic group, mostly Coptic Christians engaged in military, political, and civil affairs. The Imperial family is Amharic and Christian. The Gallas, a pastoral and agricultural people, are Hamitic in origin and follow Moslem, Christian, and animist religious practices. The population includes several other sizable ethnic groups, largely Moslem or pagan.

Ethiopians vary in skin color from light olive to dark brown or black; most are dark. Amharic, the language of the Amharas, has its own script and is the official language. English is the second language.

HISTORY: Ethiopia has been independent for all but five of the past 3,000 years. It has existed as a Christian kingdom since the fourth century A. D. It was a strong well-organized state before the advent of Christianity. Herodotus and other classical writers refer to it as an important kingdom. According to Ethiopian tradition, the biblical Queen of Sheba (mentioned as a guest of Solomon) was the ruler of the country.

The reign of Emperor Haile Selassie began in 1930. During the break in independence, when the Italians occupied Ethiopia from 1936 to 1941, the Imperial family resided in Great Britain.

Until recently, the Ethiopian government has been conservative in its relationship to other African countries; but within the past decade it has taken increased interest in affairs on the continent as a whole. With both the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and the UN Economic Commission for Africa located in Addis Ababa, new international importance has been brought to Ethiopia. The country's prominence has been further emphasized by frequent international meetings in the capital.

GOVERNMENT: The Kingdom of Ethiopia is a monarchy ruled by a hereditary emperor with the advice of his Council of Ministers. There are no political parties in the country, but the lower house of the bicameral legislature is popularly elected. Since the unsuccessful revolution of December 1960, large numbers of young, educated Ethiopians have been taken into government service to be trained for upper administrative positions. The Emperor, Haile Selassie, is considered a direct descendant of Solomon and the Queen of Sheba.

ECONOMY: Ethiopia's economy is basically agricultural, with 90 percent of the people engaged in farming and pastoral activity. Coffee is indigenous to Ethiopia, the name coming from the country's Kaffa province; it is the country's principal marketable product, accounting for over half its exports. Oil seeds, hides and skins, and spices are also exported. Even with large herds of cattle, meat export is limited due to disease. The plateau area near Addis Ababa is one of the most fertile regions in the world, with a great potential as a grain center. Industry is concerned with the processing of agricultural products. Air-travel facilities, developed under contract with Trans World Airlines, have been a major factor in economic advance, while federation with Eritrea in 1952 gave Ethiopia two Red Sea ports. Development assistance has been obtained from various sources.

EDUCATION: After the Italian occupation, the Emperor launched a vigorous educational program. State tuition-free schools were provided, and foreign educators were brought into the schools.

Instruction is given in both Amharic and English in state schools and higher institutions. In mission, church, and community schools, teaching is in Amharic only. Community or fundamental education was introduced in 1957, extending instruction to rural communities and stressing vocational training.

The Haile Selassie I University was established in 1961, incorporating several previously established colleges. In addition to the University College of Addis Ababa, the university includes an agricultural college, an engineering college, a public health college, a college of education, a theology college, and a college of building technology, as well as a branch at Asmara.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 23, birthday of the Emperor.

GABON

LOCATION: Gabon is an Atlantic coastal state, straddling the equator and extending inland for several hundred miles. Its continental neighbors are Spanish Guinea and Cameroon on the north, the Congo Republic (Brazzaville) on the south and east. The smallest and least populous territory of former French Equatorial Africa, Gabon has an area of nearly 103,000 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Lowlands along the coast give way to rocky plateaus and mountains in the interior. The country has an extensive river system, comprised of the Ogowe and its tributaries, navigable for many miles into the interior but obstructed by rapids and difficult terrain further inland. Except for the coastal strip, virtually the entire country is covered by dense tropical rain forest. The climate is hot and humid, with much rain throughout the year. There is little variation in temperature from season to season; the daily average is about 80 degrees.

CITIES: The capital and principal city is Libreville (population about 45,000), situated on the northern coast near the mouth of the Gabon River. Port Gentil, the other major town (population of about 30,000), lies south of the capital near the mouth of the Ogowe; it is the center of the country's oil and plywood industries. The next largest city, Lambaréné, has less than 5,000 population. The hospital of the late Dr. Albert Schweitzer is located at Lambaréné, on Gagon's Ogowe River.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Gabon's 450,000 population is mainly comprised of over 40 African tribal groups. The two major ones are the Bantu who live along the coast in the Ogowe delta region and in various parts of the interior and the Fang, who moved into the northern region during the nineteenth century. There are also a few thousand forest-dwelling pygmies. In northern Gabon the Fang language prevails, and in other parts of the country Bantu languages predominate. French is the language of government and of instruction in the schools. Many of the people along the coast are Christians, but animist religions are prevalent in the interior.

Gabon's population is clustered along the rivers and main roads, with large areas of the interior completely uninhabited. About 90 percent are rural dwellers. The chief towns are located along the coast in the southeast.

HISTORY: Portuguese merchants visited this part of Africa in the fifteenth century, followed by Dutch, British, and French traders in the sixteenth century. After the abolishment of slave trade, French explorers penetrated the interior, and formal French occupation took place in 1885. In January 1910 Gabon became one of the four territories of the Federation of French Equatorial Africa. This federation was dissolved in 1959, when Gabon became an autonomous republic of the French Community. On August 17, 1960, Gabon proclaimed its complete independence, and since then has retained close ties with France.

GOVERNMENT: Under the constitution of 1966 the Republic of Gabon has a highly centralized presidential system of government. The president, elected for a seven-year term by popular vote, serves both as chief of state and chief executive. He is authorized to introduce legislation in the National Assembly, to appeal to the nation by referendum, and to dissolve the legislature.

Legislative elections in April 1964 were won by President Leon M'Ba's Bloc Démocratique Gabonais. When President M'Ba died on November 28, 1967, the vice-president, Albert Bongo, became president. In March 1968 President Bongo declared Gabon a one-party state. He dissolved the BDG and established a new party, the Gabonese Democratic Party (PDG).

ECONOMY: Endowed with lush tropical forest and rich mineral deposits, Gabon has some of the most valuable resources in equatorial Africa. Wood presently accounts for roughly 40 percent of all exports. The most important wood export is okumé wood, used in the manufacture of plywood. Significant mineral production for export has begun in recent years. Gabon now exports annually about 5 million tons of crude oil, 1.2 tons of high-grade manganese ore, and 1,300 tons of 30 percent uranium ore, as well as small amounts of gold. Development of high-grade iron ore by European and U.S. firms will expand on completion of a 400-mile Gabonese railroad to transport ore to the coast.

Over 95 percent of Gabon's export-producing enterprises are foreign-owned and operated. Most Gabonese still are dependent on subsistence farming, and little more than one third of the total agricultural produce is marketed. The main food crops are manioc, peanuts, and palm oil.

EDUCATION: About 95 percent of the total school enrollment is at the primary level. The system of education is based on that of France, and academic standards in secondary schools follow those set by French institutions. Students must go abroad for higher education.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 17, Independence Day.

THE GAMBIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Gambia--less than half the size of Vermont--is a narrow strip of land extending about 180 miles inland from the Atlantic coast of northern Africa along the banks of the Gambia River. Its width varies from 15 to 30 miles. Apart from its shore coastline, Gambia is entirely surrounded by Senegal, with whom it maintains friendly relations.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A flat land covered with thick mangrove swamps, bamboo forests, and sandy soil, Gambia has one of Africa's finest waterways--the Gambia River. It winds through the country for 295 miles before reaching the Atlantic Ocean. Small ocen-going ships can sail upstream about 150 miles from the coast.

The summer months (June-October) are hot and humid. Temperatures during the summer may reach 110 degrees. During the winter (November-May) temperatures drop to about 60 degrees. The harmattan, a dry wind, blows from the Sahara during the winter.

CITIES: Bathurst, a port of 30,000, is the capital and only large town. Georgetown is a trading center midway up the Gambia River. An airport at Yumdum, near Bathurst, links Gambia with other West African countries.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Of its 356,000 population (1969 estimate), almost all are indigenous Africans. The five leading tribes are the Mandingo, Fulani, Wolof, Jola, and Serahuli. The Mandingo (130,000) are traders and farm groundnuts (peanuts). Most of the 43,000 Fulani live in eastern Gambia and raise cattle. The 40,000 Wolof tribesmen live in the north. The 20,000 Jola in the south raise rice and millet.

Islam is the principal religion, followed by animism. There are a few thousand Christians. The official language is English.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Present-day Gambia was part of the kingdom of Mali between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries. Portuguese seamen visited there in the 1450's; England began a settlement there in 1661 attracted by slaves and gold. During the eighteenth century, England and France struggled continuously for political and commercial supremacy in the regions of the Senegal and Gambia Rivers.

Gambia was reserved to Great Britain by the 1783 Treaty of Versailles, but France retained an enclave at Albreda on the north bank of the river. British merchants founded Bathurst in 1816, the colony of Gambia was set up in 1888, and by 1902 Britain had established a protectorate over what is now Gambia.

Gambia gained internal self-government in 1963. David (now Sir Dauda) Jawara, leader of the People's Progressive Party (PPP), became the first prime minister. Gambia became independent on February 18, 1965. Gambia is a constitutional monarchy within the British Commonwealth; Queen Elizabeth is represented by a governor-general. In 1966 Jawara won a second term as prime minister.

GOVERNMENT: The governor-general's function is ceremonial. The prime minister and his cabinet govern the country. Ministers are chosen by the prime minister from members of the House of Representatives. The people elect 32 of the 39 House members; tribal chiefs name four members from among themselves. Several political parties exist in addition to the governing PPP.

ECONOMY: Except for the Gambia River, the country is poorly endowed with natural resources; and flood and salinity conditions limit the river's utility. Groundnuts make up about 95 percent of the exports. Palm kernels, hides, dried mollusks, and beeswax are also exported. The main industry is groundnut processing. Great Britain buys most of Gambia's exports and supplies most of its imports.

EDUCATION: Almost all children living in and near Bathurst attend school, but only about one third in other parts of Gambia go to school. More schools are being built in rural areas, however. Most students complete a six-year primary course, but only a few attend secondary school.

Gambia has a technical school at Bathurst and a teacher-training college at Yumdum.

FOOD: Jollof rice is said to have originated in The Gambia. Dishes made from groundnuts are popular including soup and stew. Fish from the ocean and river are favored.

GHANA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Ghana is an Atlantic coastal state on the western bulge of Africa. Its neighbors are the French-speaking republics of Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, and Togo. Ghana is about the size of Oregon.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Other than its 334-mile-long sandy coast in the south and its treeless plains in the north, most of Ghana is low scrub land or forested hill country cut by shallow rivers and streams. Ghana's climate is tropical. The southwestern section and forest belt is warm and humid; the eastern coast warm and rather dry; the north hot and dry. The northeasterly Harmatan wind cools the land in January and February.

CITIES: Accra (population over 521, 000) is Ghana's capital and largest city; it has a variety of modern buildings as well as colorful outdoor markets run by women traders. Formerly, it was the country's chief port. Kumasi, the capital of the Ashanti Kingdom is the second largest city, with over 250, 000 people.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: All but a few of Ghana's 8.4 million people are indigenous Africans. Non-Africans number less than 10, 000 and are mostly British, Lebanese, and Syrian. Neither white settlement nor white ownership of land is permitted in the country.

English is the official language, but many Ghanaians converse in regional dialects. Although there are over 50 of these dialects, the country can be divided into five major linguistic groups--the coastal Akans, the Asante dwelling in the Ashanti forest area, the Volta plain Guans, the south and southeastern people speaking Ga and Ewe, and the Togo and northern tribes speaking Moshi-Dagomba. The educated and urban minority are largely Christian or Moslem, but most of Ghana's people practice traditional animist religions.

Ghanaians wear the most colorful dress in West Africa. The Kenti is a multicolored cloth with a predominant yellow or orange background in a small hexagonal pattern. Initially, the different patterns, colors, and weaves indicated different tribes. Men wear the Kenti draped over one shoulder and around the waist, floor length. Women wear it as a long skirt also floor length. It is considered formal wear in Ghana; and visitors and diplomats sometimes wear the Kenti to state banquets, inaugurations, and similar public events.

HISTORY: Ghana, called the Gold Coast before its independence, had initial European contact with Portuguese gold and slave traders in the fifteenth century. British, Germans, Dutch, and Danes later settled along the coast; and Britain eventually became the dominant power. The coastal area was declared a British colony in 1886, the Ashanti territory was added 10 years later after a long series of wars, and in 1901 the Northern Territories were annexed. The British-administered Trust Territory of Togoland was incorporated into the Gold Coast when the latter became the independent nation of Ghana in 1957. The name Ghana was adopted from the empire of Ghana which flourished in western Africa over a thousand years ago.

Ghana achieved independence on March 6, 1957, the first black African nation to do so after World War II. It changed its constitution and became a republic on July 1, 1960, but has remained a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

GOVERNMENT: Under the 1960 constitution Ghana had a presidential system of government. Kwame Nkrumah was president until 1966. His Convention People's Party was the only political party permitted in the country after 1963; it controlled the National Assembly and established a centralized system of rule.

In February 1966, while Nkrumah was visiting Peking, Ghanaian army officers overthrew his regime and deposed him. The constitution was suspended and political activity banned. A military police council was formed to direct affairs of state.

In August 1969 the first free elections in 13 years made Kofi A. Busia Ghana's new prime minister and returned the nation to civilian leadership under the Progress Party. It was the first time that a military government in Africa had voluntarily turned control back to civilians.

The country--under its new 1969 constitution--is now known as the Second Republic of Ghana.

ECONOMY: Ghana's economy is based on cocoa. Small farmers make the country the world's chief supplier of cocoa, which accounts for over 70 percent of national exports. A marketing board buys the crop from the farmers and sells it on world markets. Palm kernels, palm oil, and coconuts also are exported. Fishing and forestry are other important occupations. Gold, industrial diamonds, manganese, and bauxite are all extracted in limited amounts. The Volta River hydroelectric complex, inaugurated in January 1966, serves Ghana's first giant industry—an aluminum smelter near the port of Tema near Accra. Tema's harbor now accommodates ocean ships, which formerly had to be loaded and unloaded off shore at Accra by small boats.

Chief among the new government's economic problems are unemployment and a foreign debt of $1.4 billion.

EDUCATION: A modified form of British education is used in Ghana, with examinations set and a secondary certificate granted by the West African Examinations Council. The University of Ghana (near Accra) and the University of Science and Technology (Kumasi) have more than 1,000 students each. Government planning has stressed expansion of primary and secondary education. The language of instruction in secondary schools is English. Only one fifth of the nation is literate.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: March 6, Independence Day.

GUINEA

LOCATION, SIZE, CLIMATE: An independent state of 95,000 square miles, about the size of Oregon, Guinea was formerly part of French West Africa. It is an Atlantic coastal state, bordered on the north by Portuguese Guinea and Senegal, on the south by Sierra Leone and Liberia, and on the east by Mali and Ivory Coast.

Typical of the high rainfall countries in this part of Africa, Guinea's fertile but hot coastal swamps contrast with higher and cooler zones in the interior.

CITIES: Conakry, on the coast, is the capital and principal city (population nearly 175,000). There are five other major towns with populations between 10,000 and 25,000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Over 16 ethnic groups have been distinguished among the country's estimated 3.7 million population. The main groups are the Fulani (Peuls) living in the northwest, the Malinké in the northeast, and the Sousou people around Conakry in the southwest. In religion, traditional animist beliefs coexist with, and often pervade, the practice of Islam. French is the language of administration and instruction; English is taught in the school as a second language. Efforts also are being made to extend the teaching of African tongues (Fulani, Malinké, Sousou).

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Guinea became a colony of France in the closing decades of the nineteenth century. Its earlier contacts with Europeans centered around slave-trading activities. Like other French territories in Africa after World War II, Guinea experienced successive constitutional changes that provided increasing scope for local political activity. In 1957 Guinea's elected territorial assembly was authorized to choose a council of ministers responsible for the administration of virtually all territorial services. When President DeGaulle in 1958 offered French dependencies a choice between continued association with France or complete independence, Guinea chose the latter and proclaimed its independence on October 2, 1958.

GOVERNMENT: Guinea's government consists of a unicameral legislature (the National Assembly) and a president of the republic, both elected by universal suffrage. Sékou Touré, first president of the republic, is an energetic leader who rose to power through the Parti Democratique de Guinea. Opposition parties merged with the PDG in 1958, making it the only political party in the country. The 176-member Conseil Nationale de la Révolution rules Guinea as a highly centralized state and seeks to develop an African form of socialism. Tribal chieftancies, a potential source of disunity, have been abolished.

ECONOMY: Large mineral resources abound in Guinea's soil--bauxite, iron ore, gold, diamonds, and possibly oil. The FRIA bauxite-mining and alumina-manufacturing complex, developed since 1958 by a consortium of American and European firms, is one of the largest bauxite-to-alumina operations in the world and the first one established in Africa. Alumina from the FRIA plant now accounts for over half of Guinea's exports to hard currency areas. Diamonds and iron ore also are significant export items while bananas, coffee, and palm kernels remain the chief agricultural exports. Agriculture is still the basic economic activity, providing a livelihood for about 90 percent of Guinea's people.

In the colonial period, France supplied funds to bolster Guinea's economy and cover its foreign trade deficit. After the abrupt break from France, Guinea relied heavily on economic and technical assistance from countries of the Soviet bloc. The new government also attempted to nationalize most of the country's trade and establish controls over foreign-owned business firms. Civil disturbances in 1961 spurred the government to take steps to reduce Guinea's dependence on the Soviet bloc; settle many of its outstanding differences with France; and pursue a more flexible policy of economic development, with guarantees for private investment.

EDUCATION: Facilities for primary and secondary education have expanded greatly since independence, and about 30 percent of the school age children attend school. The original French system has been altered to emphasize African studies, political education, and vocational training.

The U.S. has provided assistance since 1960 for a national institute of public administration, for technical and vocational education, and for English language instruction. Students must go abroad for higher learning.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: October 2, Independence Day.

IVORY COAST

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Ivory Coast lies along the Gulf of Guinea on the underside of the western bulge of Africa. A rectangular-shaped country--127,500 square miles in area (about the size of New Mexico)--it has continental frontiers with Liberia and Guinea on the west, Upper Volta and Mali on the north, Ghana on the east.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: For about 185 miles from the Ghana border the coast is flat and sandy with a zone of lagoons behind it, but for the rest of the distance to Liberia the coast is high and rocky. Beyond this coastal strip is a forest region which gives way to bush savannah in the north. From the coastal area the land rises gradually to an altitude of 1,300 feet in the north, its rolling surface broken by several mountainous areas with peaks from 3,000 to 5,000 feet. Four major rivers flow from north to south, none navigable for more than 40 miles but useful along with their tributaries for transporting timber.

The Ivory Coast includes three distinct climatic regions, but the weather generally is of the equatorial type with alternating dry and rainy seasons. In the coastal region, where the capital city of Abidjan is located, the climate is characterized by heavy rainfall, much humidity, and average temperatures ranging from 73 degrees to 80 degrees. For Europeans the most comfortable season is a short dry period from mid-July to October.

CITIES: The population is predominantly rural, and only about 10 percent live in towns and cities. Abidjan, the capital and largest city of Ivory Coast, has a population over 400,000. It is a center of trade and local manufacturing, with a deep-water port constructed in postwar years. Its musem of ethnology is considered to be outstanding. Bouaké, the second largest city, has a population over 50,000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population--about 4.7 million (1968)--includes about 37,000 non-Africans (French, Lebanese, Syrians, Italians). There are several distinct groupings among the African population: the Agni-Ashanti-Baoule group in the southeast; the Kova-Kova and Krous in the southwest; the Mandé, Voltaic, and Senoufo clans in the north; the Dan and Gouro in the center. French is the official language. More than 60 African languages are spoken by different ethnic groups, and about five of these predominate. The people of the Ivory Coast are largely animist in religion, although Islam is professed by several groups in the north. Both Catholic and Protestant missionaries have been active for many years, especially in the south.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: The Portuguese made exploratory voyages along the coast in the fifteenth century and were soon followed by other European traders. The first French mission and a fort were established there in the seventeenth century, but endured only a short time. Some of the major African groups of the Ivory Coast settled there in the eighteenth century.

In 1842 the French began to establish permanent posts along the coast by making treaties with local chiefs. French penetration of the interior dates from the 1880's, but control was completed only in 1916. Since World War II, Ivory Coast has experienced rapid political advance. Under the French Constitution of 1946, it was given three deputies and three senators in the French parliament and an elected territorial assembly. In 1958 Ivory Coast accepted the status of an autonomous republic within the new French Community; on August 7, 1960, it became completely independent.

GOVERNMENT: Executive power is vested in a president elected for a five-year term by direct universal suffrage. The president appoints and dismisses the cabinet ministers, who are responsible to him. There is an 85-member National Assembly elected at the same time as the president and reelected every five years. Legislation may be introduced by members of the Assembly or by the president. There is an independent judiciary with a supreme court. Local affairs are managed by elected councils.

President Félix Houphouët-Boigny is the leader of the country's only effective political party, Parti Démocratique de la Côte d'Ivoire. He has long been one of the most important political figures in West Africa.

ECONOMY: Ivory Coast prosperity is based on exportation of coffee, tropical woods, cacao, bananas, and pineapples. Coffee is the most important single product. Industrial diamonds and manganese are mined for export; large-scale iron ore exploitation began in 1969. The country's small but rapidly growing industrial complex, centered in Abidjan and Bouaké, includes food processing plants, lumber mills, an automobile assembly plant, a cotton-spinning mill, a construction materials industry, and two shipyards. Hydroelectric installations have been built on the Bia River, and petroleum exploration is under way in the coastal lagoon area. With a favorable trade balance, incentives to foreign investment, and French development aid, the Ivory Coast has one of the most rapidly expanding economies in French-speaking Africa and aims to achieve self-sustaining growth by 1970.

EDUCATION: The literacy rate is about 20 percent. The educational system is modeled after that of France, adapted to local conditions at the primary level. About one quarter of the republic's budget is earmarked for public education. The Center for Higher Education, expanded into the University of Abidjan in 1963, has over 1,000 students.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 7, Independence Day.

KENYA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Kenya, centrally located on the eastern coast of Africa, borders on the Indian Ocean and has land frontiers with Somalia on the northeast, Ethiopia and the Sudan on the north, Uganda on the west, and Tanzania on the south. Nearly as large as Texas, it has a total area of about 225, 000 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Over half of Kenya's land is arid desert, broken intermittently by hills and mountains. A well-watered central plateau, known as the Kenyan Highlands, straddles the equator; this area contains most of the people and its best farmland. Snowcapped Mount Kenya, for which the country was named, rises over 17, 000 feet. The East African Rift Valley, 30 to 40 miles wide, is another striking part of the landscape. Kenya has one important river, the Tana. Lake Rudolf and part of Lake Victoria lie within its borders. The climate is cool in the highland areas, tropical in the coastal regions. There are two rainy seasons, but distribution of rainfall is uneven, leaving a large section of the north too dry for agricultural purposes.

CITIES: Nairobi, the capital, with a population of over 314, 000, is the center of Kenya's trade, commerce, and banking. It lies at an altitude of 5, 400 feet and has a modern airport served by many international airlines. Kenya's major port, Mombasa on the Indian Ocean, has over 200, 000 people and is a shipping center for East African overseas trade. Nakuru is a modern town of more than 35, 000 people in the agricultural highlands.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Kenya has an estimated population of 9. 9 million, of which most are Africans and 200, 000 are Asians, Europeans, and Arabs.

Formerly, the Europeans were English settlers whose families had been in Kenya for three and four generations. The Asians include Indians, Pakistani, and Goans. The Arabs, living along the coast, have even deeper roots in the area than Europeans and Asians. Under government Africanization policy, Africans are rapidly replacing Asians in commerce, trade, and the civil service. Large-scale farming in the Kenya highlands is conducted by Africans who have been resettled on farms purchased from departing Europeans. Most rural Africans are subsistence farmers. As in other parts of the continent, some of Kenya's African people still live in traditional tribal societies, while others have adopted newer ways of life along western lines. Among Kenya's major tribal groups are the Kikuyu (who make up 20 percent of the African population), the Luo, the Kamba, the Luhya, and the Masai.

English is the language of commerce and government. The lingua franca (common vernacular) of most of the people, however, is Swahili, an African Bantu dialect now widely used throughout East Africa. It has recently been adopted as the official language. Each of Kenya's tribes also has its own language or dialect.

Missionary influence in Kenya has been extensive, and many schools for African children are operated by Christian missions. Although most of the Africans are pagan, there is a large Christian and Islamic community. With the exception of the Catholic Goans, the Asians are mainly Hindus or Moslems.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Arab traders first established settlements on the east coast of Africa and were followed by Portuguese explorers and traders in the fifteenth century. European contact with the interior dates only from the second half of the nineteenth century. British interest in the interior was motivated partly by the desire to abolish the Arab slave trade and partly by the desire to develop commercial trade with the Kingdom of Buganda (in present-day Uganda). The original concession over the coastal region of Kenya was obtained by the British East African Company from the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1888 and later was enlarged. Significant development began in 1895 with construction of the railway from Mombasa to Uganda. British agricultural settlement in the Kenya highlands began about the turn of the century. In 1920 the leased coastal strip was made into a British protectorate, and the interior became a crown colony.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: British policy before 1960 was to develop a governmental system in Kenya that would maintain a political balance among Europeans, Asians, and Africans. In

1960 Britain modified its policy and agreed that Kenya's constitutional development would be based on African majority rule. Two large African parties then were formed: the Kenya African National Union (KANU) and the Kenyan African Democratic Union (KADU).

In April 1962, following constitutional negotiations in London, a pre-independence coalition government was formed in Kenya. National elections were held in May 1963, with KANU winning a majority of seats in the new National Assembly. A KANU government under Prime Minister Jomo Kenyatta took office in June 1963 and led Kenya to independence on December 12, 1963.

GOVERNMENT: In December 1964, one year after achieving independence, Kenya became a republic, with Jomo Kenyatta as president. It remains a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Under Kenya's constitution, the president of the Republic serves both as head of the cabinet and as governmental leader in the House of Representatives. The National Assembly is bicameral, with the Senate and 90 percent of the House elected by universal suffrage.

Kenya became a one-party state in 1964, when the leader of KADU dissolved his party and joined KANU, the party in power. Early in 1966, however, an opposition party, the Kenya People's Union (KPU), was formed by Kenya's former vice-president, Oginga Odinga.

ECONOMY: Kenya is an agricultural country whose economy depends largely on exports of tea, coffee, sisal (used in making rope), pyrethrum (used in making insecticides), and wattle bark extract, along with some cotton, hides, and skins. Manufacturing and processing industries account for about a tenth of the national income. Tourism is a rapidly growing industry in Kenya.

EDUCATION: Separate schools have been traditional in Kenya for each racial community. Since independence, integration has begun. Kenya's system of elementary and secondary education leads to a Cambridge Oversea Certificate (equal to a U. S. high school diploma). Two years of postsecondary education leading to a Higher School Certificate are required for university entrance. Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania are cooperating in the development of the University of East Africa. University College in Nairobi is the Kenyan section of the university.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: December 12, Independence Day.

LESOTHO

LOCATION AND SIZE: Known formerly as Basutoland, the Kingdom of Lesotho lies in the southeastern portion of the Republic of South Africa. It is completely surrounded by the Republic and has an area of 11,716 square miles--about the size of Maryland.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Lesotho is mountainous. The Drakensberg range rises to more than 11,000 feet. Its only plains are in the west. The country has a harsh, barren landscape with few trees. It is subject to severe drought, heavy snow, and flash flooding, which erodes soil. Rainfall occurs between October and April. The western plans have a temperature range from zero in the winter to 90 degrees in the summer.

CITIES: Maseru (population 10,000) is the capital and largest town.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Lesotho's population of 945,000 (1969 estimate) are Basotho (or Basuto) people, who raise livestock and farm on a subsistence level. Most Basotho live in small villages of less than 250 persons and build their huts around a cattle yard. Crops are raised on surrounding land, owned jointly by the people. In the winter dried manure is burned for fuel.

The people are often seen in heavy multicolored blankets worn for warmth over traditional dress. Several Christian denominations have been active for many years; however, most people practice traditional religions. English is spoken in commerce and government.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Southern Africa's tribal wars of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries caused some of the victims to flee into the highlands of Lesotho where an African chief--Moshesh--gave them protection. By 1824 Moshesh had united his people into the Basotho nation.

In 1868 Moshesh asked for and received protection from Great Britain. In 1884 Basutoland was established as a British colony. In 1910 the Basutoland Council was created and remained the national legislative council until independence on October 4, 1966. After the independence of South Africa, Basutoland became one of three territories contiguous to South Africa but governed by a British High Commissioner in Pretoria. Until independence, Basutoland was known as a High Commission Territory.

GOVERNMENT: The first general election was held in 1965, and the Basutoland National Party leader, Chief Leabua Jonathan, became prime minister and head of government. In October 1966 Lesotho became a member of the Commonwealth of Nations and the United Nations. King Motlotlehi Moshoeshoe II, great-grandson of Moshesh, plays a nominal role as head of state.

ECONOMY: Lesotho has no manufacturing industries and few minerals, including some diamond deposits. About half of the men work in South Africa. Livestock raising is the most important industry. Exports include wool mohair, hides, skins, and cattle. Most of the trade is with South Africa. Overcultivation and overgrazing have damaged the soil. The best farmland lies in the western plains, where two thirds of the people live. In rural areas travel is on horseback.

EDUCATION: Lesotho has a well developed primary-level educational system. About 90 percent of the school age children receive some elementary education. Since most boys spend their youth herding livestock, two thirds of all school children are girls.

The main campus of the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland (UBLS) is located at Roma, 25 miles from Maseru. Begun after World War II as Pope Pius XII University College, it was transformed into a state university in 1964 and now serves the three countries.

LIBERIA

GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE: The Republic of Liberia has an area of 43,000 square miles (about the size of Ohio) and lies on the southern coast of Africa's western bulge. It is flanked on the northwest by Sierra Leone, on the north by Guinea, and on the east by Ivory Coast.

A plateau country, Liberia is well-watered and densely forested. It has numerous unnavigable rivers flowing into the Atlantic and a 350-mile Atlantic coastline. Being near the equator, Liberia's climate is humid and tropical with two seasons--hot and dry from November to April, cool and wet from April to October.

CITIES: **Monrovia,** with a population of over 80,000, is Liberia's capital and main cultural and educational center. It is located at the mouth of the St. Paul River on the Atlantic coast. The modern Free Port of Monrovia, opened in 1948, was constructed with aid from the U.S. A new port at **Buchanan** was completed in 1963 to handle iron ore exports from the Mt. Nimba mining area.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Liberia's population, totaling about 1.1 million, consists of the indigenous Africans and about 45,000 descendants of freed American slaves who settled here in the early nineteenth century. Only persons of African descent may become citizens, and only citizens may own land. The indigenous people live according to tribal traditions and customs; the principal ethnic groups are Mandingo, Mende, Vai, Gola, and the seafaring Kru who dwell along the coast. Although the official language is English, most of Liberia's citizens converse in one or more of the 28 tribal dialects. The descendants of the settlers from America and various other educated urban elements are Christian (mainly Protestant). The bulk of the indigenous people remain pagan. There are several thousand foreign residents, including Americans employed by various U.S. business firms and the Liberian government.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Liberia was founded under the auspices of the American Colonization Society. The purpose of the Society was "to promote and execute a plan for colonizing, with their consent, the free people of color residing in the United States, in Africa, or such other place as Congress shall deem most expedient." Freed U.S. slaves made their first permanent settlement in Liberia on Providence Island in 1822, later moving to Cape Mesurado where Monrovia, named after President Monroe, was founded. White Americans appointed by the Society served as early governors. Liberia's first Negro governor, Joseph Roberts, led his country to independence in 1847 and became its first president in 1848. Because of the slavery issue, the U.S. did not recognize Liberia until 1862.

Under the open-door policy of President William Tubman, chief executive since 1944, Liberia has participated extensively in international organizations, encouraged foreign investment, and maintained friendly ties with the U.S.

GOVERNMENT: The constitution provides for executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government. The president is both chief of state and chief executive. Members of his cabinet administer the various government departments. The legislature consists of the Senate (18 members) and the House of Representatives (52 members).

President William Tubman, reelected for a sixth term in 1967, is the leader of the True Whig Party, which has been in power continuously since 1878.

ECONOMY: Liberia's principal resources are rubber, iron ore, and timber. Firestone Rubber Company, in addition to producing rubber on its own lands, has assisted Liberian nationals in development of rubber production on small individually owned estates. Rubber exports were the mainstay of Liberia's economy until 1961, when iron ore became the most valuable export item. Iron ore has been mined at Bomi Hills since 1951. The development of additional deposits of high-grade ore is expected to alter the structure of Liberia's economy within the next several years.

Private foreign investment has been encouraged in agriculture and forestry as well as rubber and iron ore. U.S. investment is larger than that of all other sources combined. One of the main problems is an acute shortage of managerial and technical skills to support further development. The tribal people who form the bulk of Liberia's population still are engaged primarily in subsistence agriculture.

EDUCATION: The number of schools is increasing, but facilities are still inadequate. Besides mission schools and government schools, two other systems exist: the Poro (or tribal) schools and the Moslem schools, both in the hinterland. The University of Liberia, a liberal arts college, and Booker Washington Institute, a vocational school, are two major institutions. A problem at every level of education is that of poorly trained and low-paid teachers. Both the U.S. government and UNESCO are providing assistance to help Liberia solve its educational problems.

FOOD: Most Liberian foods are heavily spiced with red pepper. The basic food is rice with chicken or meat. Stuffed baby goat is a national delicacy. Favored vegetables are eggplant, okra, and a local variety of spinach. Peanut soup and peanut stew are common dishes, and banana figs (made by drying the bananas in the sun) are a popular dessert.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 26, Independence Day.

LIBYA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Kingdom of Libya is a North African state extending along the Mediterranean for nearly 1,000 miles. It is bordered on the east by Egypt and the Sudan, on the west by Tunisia and Algeria, and on the south by Niger and Chad. Libya is composed of three distinct areas: Tripolitania, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan. Covering an area of 580,000 square miles, Libya is nearly three times the size of Texas.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: About 90 percent of the country is arid desert. Roughly 2 percent of the land is suitable for cultivation; 5 percent is suitable for grazing. Only along the Mediterranean coast and on the slopes of nearby hills is there sufficient rainfall for dry farming. Even here, crops are often ruined by hot dry winds blowing from the Sahara.

CITIES: Tripoli, the largest urban center, is a modernized Mediterranean city with about 213,000 inhabitants; about one sixth of them Italians. Nearby are outstanding Roman ruins, attesting to Tripolitania's ancient splendor. Benghazi, Cyrenaica's main seaport, has a population over 137,000. Much of Benghazi was destroyed during World War II, when the city changed hands five times between Axis forces and British troops. Northeast of Benghazi are the ruins of Cyrene, once a flourishing center of ancient Greek culture. Further east is the seaside town of Derna, captured and held temporarily by the U.S. Marines in 1805, during the days of the Barbary pirates.

Libya's government has in the past moved back and forth periodically between Tripoli and Benghazi, the two official cocapitals.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Libyans are primarily a racial mixture of Arabs and Berbers. There is also a Negro element in the population of the southern oases. The European minority includes 35,000 Italians and various smaller groups.

Around one fourth of Libya's 1.7 million people live in urban communities. Most of the rural dwellers are tribal people, and perhaps 26 percent lead a nomadic or seminomadic life. Islam is the religion of virtually all Libyans. Arabic is the official language. Italian is spoken in and around the city of Tripoli, and English has been in use since World War II.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Libya was subject to foreign rule for many centuries, as far back as the ancient Phoenicians. In the sixteenth century it was conquered by the Turks, who held it within the Ottoman Empire until 1911, when Italy took over the coastal provinces. During World War II Libya was occupied by Allied forces, with Tripolitania and Cyrenaica coming under British administration and the Fezzan under French jurisdiction. After the war, the question of Libya's future status was referred to the United Nations, and the General Assembly resolved that the country should become independent by January 1952. Libya declared independence on December 24, 1951.

GOVERNMENT: Until recently the three historic parts of Libya were united under a central government headed by King Idris I, the Senussi leader who resisted Italian domination and aided the Allied cause in World War II. In September 1969 a group of military officers assumed power while the king was out of the country.

ECONOMY: Except for the production of oil, Libya is an agricultural and pastoral country. About three fourths of its people are occupied in farming and herding, largely on a subsistence basis. The main agricultural products are wheat, barley, olives, dates, citrus fruits, and esparto grass (used for making high-grade paper). Farm productivity is low, and before the discovery of oil Libya ranked as one of the poorest countries in the world. Foreign grants and loans, mainly from the U.S. and Britain, paid for half of all Libya's public expenditures in the decade following independence.

Discovery of large oil reserves since 1958 has radically changed Libya's economic position, and the country has become the West's most vital source of Middle Eastern oil. Ninety percent of its 3-million-barrel-a-day production is U.S. controlled. At the present production rate, Libya could become the world's top petroleum exporter in a few years, replacing Venezuela.

Oil revenues have not only relieved the government of dependence on U.S. and British aid, but have also enabled it to finance development projects. Over three fourths of the government budget comes from oil revenues. Shortages of trained personnel remain a major problem for Libya's development, and the country continues to rely on technical assistance from external sources.

EDUCATION: Facilities for education were very limited before independence in 1951, and the literacy rate was then about 10 percent. The Libyan government has been expanding educational services, with emphasis on primary education. Education and health services are provided free.

Arabic is the language of instruction in the public schools, and most secondary and vocational school teachers are recruited from other Arab countries. The University of Libya was opened in 1956 with faculties at Benghazi and Tripoli. The College of Advanced Technology, founded with the aid of UNESCO, opened in 1962.

FOOD: Bread and various dishes prepared from grain are staples in the Libyan diet. Other important foods include olives, dates, grapes, and goat's milk and cheese. Moslem tradition prohibits the consumption of pork and alcoholic drinks.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: December 24, Independence Day.

MALAGASY REPUBLIC (MADAGASCAR)

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Malagasy occupies the island of Madagascar about 250 miles off the southeastern coast of the African mainland. The fourth largest island in the world, it is almost 1,000 miles long and 350 miles wide. Its 228,000 square miles of territory nearly equal the size of California and Oregon combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The island is mountainous, with many extinct volcanoes from 6,000 to over 9,000 feet in elevation. There are many geographic contrasts. Rugged mountains in the north contrast with arid grazing areas in the south, and a cool central plateau contrasts with humid coastal areas. A hot rainy season prevails from November to April, a cool dry season from May to October.

CITIES: Tananarive, the national capital and only large city, has a population of over 321,000, including 30,000 Europeans; it is an inland city of the central plateau area. Fianarantsoa, another major inland city and provincial capital, has a population of over 32,000. The other principal cities are both provincial capitals and main harbors: Diego-Suarez (northernmost port), Majunga and Tuléar (west coast), Tamatave (east coast).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The 6.3 million Malagasy people are not of African origin, nor do they consider themselves Africans. Customs, beliefs, and language show a definite relationship between people of Malagasy and those of Indonesia, suggesting waves of immigration from that area off the southeastern shores of Asia. Traces of Hindu culture suggest that the first contact was made before the Christian era. Other evidence suggests that some African and Arab immigrants of a later period were thoroughly absorbed.

The Malagasy include a variety of ethnic groups. The most numerous group are the Merina (or Hova), who occupy Tananarive province and account for a large proportion of the island's western-educated minority. Other major groups include the Betsimisaraka, the Betsileo, and the Tsimihety. All groups speak the same language--Malagasy (of Indonesian origin)--and share certain traditional religious beliefs. Protestant and Catholic missions, however, have long been active on the island, and nearly half of the Malagasy are now Christian.

In addition to the Malagasy, the country has about 50,000 French residents as well as some Indians and Chinese of recent immigration. Both French and Malagasy are used as official languages. The population is predominantly rural, barely 10 percent live in cities of 5,000 or more.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Portuguese explorers landed on Madagascar in the early sixteenth century, but for many years European contacts with the island were limited to the coastal region. British and French efforts to penetrate the center of the island in the nineteenth century coincided with the rise of a powerful Merina kingdom, several of whose leaders were receptive to Western ideas and technical assistance. The Merina were defeated by the French in 1885; and after the British recognized French preeminence, Madagascar was made a colony of France (1896). Although the Merina later cooperated in the French administration, they retained a sense of Malagasy nationality. A nationalist uprising broke out in 1947 and was suppressed after over a year of fighting. Since achieving independence in 1960, the Malagasy Republic has retained close economic and cultural ties with France.

GOVERNMENT: Madagascar was under French administration from 1896 to 1958. In October 1958 it became an autonomous member of the French Community and adopted the name Malagasy Republic. The new republic proclaimed its complete independence on June 26, 1960. It has adopted a strong presidential system of government. The president of the republic, elected for seven years, serves as chief executive, appoints cabinet ministers, and has broad administrative and regulatory powers. The national legislature consists of the directly elected Assembly and the Senate with appointed as well as elected members. The island is divided into six provinces, and local government is decentralized. Serving as Malagasy's first president is Philbert Tsiranana, head of the moderate Parti Social Democrate. There are several small opposition parties.

ECONOMY: The island has a predominantly agrarian economy with four fifths of its people occupied in farming or pastoral activities. Rice, cassava, and sweet potatoes are the chief food crops; coffee, vanilla, top-quality rice, sugarcane, tobacco, and cloves are produced for export.

Livestock raising and dairying are important activities, being assisted by the World Bank Group. Graphite, mica, and rare quartzes are mined for export; and a variety of other minerals have been located--all in small deposits, except coal. Eight international oil companies are carrying on large-scale offshore and inland prospecting. There are several light industries for processing rice, sugar, and peanut oil; but the rum distilleries have had to reduce production due to recent temperance measures. Most consumer and capital goods are imported, largely from France. The island has well-developed networks of internal air and water transport, but the mountainous nature of its terrain has impeded development of railroads and highways. To finance highway construction, Malagasy has secured loans from European and UN agencies.

EDUCATION: About half of all primary school age children attend school. Many of the country's primary and secondary schools are private institutions maintained by religious groups. A major problem complicating development of public education is that of coordinating schools of a French type with schools in which Malagasy is the language of instruction. Another is the large number of children to be educated. The University of Madagascar at Tananarive enrolls about 2, 000 students.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: October 14, Anniversary of the Proclamation of the Republic (1958).

MALAWI

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Malawi is situated in east-central Africa and is bounded by Tanzania, Mozambique, and Zambia. A long, narrow country, Malawi extends 520 miles from north to south and is only 50 to 100 miles wide. Its total area is about the size of New York State, but nearly one fifth of its surface is water.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A green and mountainous landscape, combined with lakes and rivers, makes Malawi a country of great natural beauty. Lake Nyasa, about 360 miles long, and the Mlanje Mountain, rising to nearly 10,000 feet, are its outstanding features. The highlands have a pleasant, moderately warm climate, but along the lake shore the atmosphere is very humid. In the low-lying Shire Valley the temperature rises up to 115 degrees in October and November, when the rainy season starts. The coolest season is from May to mid-August.

CITIES: The present capital is Zomba, population 19,000, but a new capital is being developed at Lilongwe, population about 19,000. Blantyre-Limbe, the largest urban center, is a commercial and industrial town of over 109,000 people.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Malawi's population of 4.1 million (1967) is overwhelmingly African. The European and Asian minorities total little more than 20,000. The Europeans are mostly government employees, missionaries, and settlers, while the Asians are mostly small-scale traders.

The country's African peoples are Bantu in origin and speak various Bantu languages and dialects. Chinyanja is a lingua franca, used in the early grades of primary school. English is the official language and is spoken widely. Although various Christian denominations have been active in education, most Africans are animists or followers of Islam. Church of Scotland missions have been working in Malawi for over 75 years and have influenced its social development.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: This part of Africa first became known to the West through the explorations of David Livingstone. His reports on the devastating effects of Arab slave trading operations in the area led to the establishment of Scottish mission stations during the 1870's. A Scottish commercial company was formed in 1878 to supply the missions and develop legitimate trade as an alternative to the slave trade. Nyasaland was proclaimed a British protectorate in 1891, and the slave trade was subsequently stamped out.

From 1953 to 1963, Nyasaland was joined with Northern and Southern Rhodesia in a semi-autonomous federation. African opposition to political association with the Rhodesias and demands for immediate self-government caused the British government to shift its policy in 1960 and agree to a series of constitutional changes that gave Nyasaland self-government and then independence under the name of Malawi. Dr. Hastings Banda, the country's first prime minister (1963) and president (1966), lived abroad for many years and studied at Wilberforce University, Ohio. He returned home in 1958 to lead the movement for independence.

GOVERNMENT: A British protectorate for over 70 years, the country attained internal self-government under African leadership in 1963. Independence was achieved on July 6, 1964, at which time the country's name was changed from Nyasaland to Malawi. On July 6, 1966, Malawi became a republic, retaining membership in the Commonwealth of Nations (British).

President Hastings Kamuzu Banda has headed Malawi's government since 1963. Under the republican constitution of 1966, he serves both as chief of state and chief executive. There is a unicameral Legislative Assembly, and the republican constitution of 1966 makes Malawi officially a one-party state. Malawi is the only African country outside of Southern Africa to exchange diplomatic relations with the Republic of South Africa. Economic ties have been strengthened, and the South African government has undertaken to build the new Malawi capital city of Lilongwe. This policy has created tensions between Malawi and other African states.

ECONOMY: Malawi is an agricultural country, and over four fifths of its population engages in subsistence farming. Tea, tobacco, peanuts, and cotton account for 90 percent of the exports. The tea is grown on European estates, but the other export crops are produced mainly by African farmers.

Economically, Malawi ranks among the poorer countries of Africa and is confronted with the problem of increasing population pressure on a limited amount of farmland. The government is making a strong effort to increase agricultural production by encouraging the extension of modern farming practices and the introduction of new crops. Apart from agriculture, opportunities for wage employment are still limited. Before independence, many of the country's African men went to work in South Africa and the Rhodesias and sent cash remittances to their families back home.

EDUCATION: Under the British protectorate, schools for African children were operated largely by missionary groups with financial assistance from the territorial government. Illiteracy is high, but a program for universal primary education is under way. Priority has been given to expanding secondary facilities, and a University of Malawi has been started with Anglo-American assistance.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 6, Independence Day.

MALI

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Mali is a large landlocked country in the heart of West Africa. To the north lie the great territories of the Sahara; to the west lie Mauritania and Senegal; to the south are Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Upper Volta; and to the east is the Republic of Niger. About one third of Mali's 463,000 square miles of territory lie within the Sahara Desert.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of the country is flat or undulating plateau, with a few rocky hills in the east. The southern part of Mali has sufficient rainfall during the summer months for settled agriculture, but the climate becomes progressively drier toward the north. Over 1,000 miles of the Niger River lies within Mali, and some stretches of it are navigable during parts of the year.

CITIES: Mali's capital and principal city is Bamako, population about 165,000. Other towns with over 10,000 inhabitants are Kayes, Segon, Sikasso, and Mopti. The old and famous city of Timbuktu, once a center for trans-Saharan camel caravans, is now only a minor trading town for salt and local produce.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Mali's estimated 4.7 million population lives largely in the Niger valley. Most are farmers, including most of the Bambara people, the Songhai, and the Malinke. The Fulani, who number over half a million, are nomadic herdsmen, as are the non-negroid, Arab-influenced Touareg people who wander the Sahara regions.

In religion Mali's people are primarily Moslem or heavily influenced by Islam, with the notable exception of the Bambara who have long resisted Islamic influence and who retain their traditional animist religion. About 50,000 are Christian. French is the official language. Mali means hippopotamus in the Bambara language, signifying strength.

HISTORY: Much of present-day Mali was included in the realm of the medieval Soudanic empires of Ghana, Mali, and Songhai. The last two in particular were in contact with Mediterranean and Near Eastern centers via trans-Saharan caravan routes, and some of their rulers were patrons of Islamic learning. The old kingdom of Mali was founded about 1200, reached its height in the fourteenth century, declined, and was destroyed about 1650. Its capital was Bamako. At its peak it extended as far as Timbuktu and Gao. The Songhai empire, which centered on Gao, expanded as Mali declined and dominated much of the western Soudan from 1465 to 1530; its conquests ranged as far as the Hausa city states in Northern Nigeria, but it was destroyed by Moroccan invaders at the end of the sixteenth century.

French military penetration began in the middle of the nineteenth century, but the country was not brought fully under control until the end of the century. It later was organized as the colony of Soudan in the administrative federation of French West Africa. In 1946 postwar reforms established a territorial assembly, whose powers were gradually expanded. In 1958 Soudan opted for internal autonomy within the French Community. In January 1959 Soudan combined with Senegal to form the Mali Federation, which became fully independent within the Community on June 20, 1960. The Federation split up in August 1960 when Senegal seceded. On September 22, 1960, Soudan proclaimed itself the independent Republic of Mali and subsequently joined the United Nations.

GOVERNMENT: Up until November 19, 1968, political authority in the Mali republic was exercised by one party, the Union Soudanaise, which held all 80 seats in the National Assembly. The party gave policy guidelines to the executive and legislative branches of government and supervised the government bureaucracy. The president of the republic and prime minister, Modibo Keita, was secretary general of the party, and most of the cabinet ministers were also members of the party's Political Bureau.

A peaceful army coup ended President Keita's rule. It established a Military Committee of National Liberation (CMLN), headed by Lieutenant Moussa Traore, who became head of state. A provisional government was formed by Captain Yoro Diakite, and elections were promised. The army said it acted to forestall its own takeover by youth militia trained in Communist China.

ECONOMY: Most of the people are engaged in subsistence agricultural or pastoral pursuits. The country is largely self-sufficient in foodstuffs; rice and millet are the major produce.

Peanuts and peanut products, livestock, fish, and cotton are the chief exports. A few banks, trading companies, and small industrial plants are in operation, mostly in Bamako.

The government has a strong preference for a state-controlled economy. Its development plans call for power and communications development, light industry, and improved agricultural productivity. A large irrigation project in the north aims to increase cotton and rice production.

EDUCATION: About 15 percent of all school age children attend school, and one fourth of these are female pupils. A shortage of teachers, a population scattered over a large territory, and meager financial resources combine to hamper the spread of education, especially beyond the primary level. University students attend Dakar and French universities.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 22, Anniversary of the Proclamation of the Republic (1960).

MAURITANIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Islamic Republic of Mauritania lies on the Atlantic coast of Africa in the region of the western Sahara. It is bordered on the north by the Spanish Sahara, on the east by Algeria and Mali, and on the south by Senegal. Mauritania's 419,000 square miles of territory make up an area larger than Texas and New Mexico combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Mauritania's land is barren, low-lying desert, broken in the center by the rocky ridges and steep cliffs of the Adrar plateau. The only sizable area with sufficient rainfall for settled farming is the valley of the Senegal River, along the southwestern boundary. The semi-arid plain region just north of the Senegal has enough grass for pasturing cattle and sheep, and some of the dunes are covered with acacia (gum) trees. Scattered oases in the Adrar region support palm groves and truck gardens irrigated by water stored in small dams. The prevailing climate is hot and dry, moderated along the coast by sea breezes.

CITIES: Nouakchott, the capital, is a new city built since 1958 and has a population of at least 35,000. It is located about half-way up the coast and four miles inland from the ocean. The fishing town of Port Etienne renamed Nouadhibou in January 1969 (population 8,000) is being modernized to export iron ore mined in the interior around Fort Gourand redesignated F'Derik. The main town in the south is Kaedi (population around 9,000), located in the Senegal valley.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Nearly 80 percent of the country's 1.1 million population are Moors--nomadic people of Berber and Arab stock related to the Touaregs of the central Sahara. The rest are largely Negro Africans living as settled farmers in the Senegal valley. There are about 2,000 French and other European residents. French is the official language; Arabic, the national language. Both the Moorish and Negroid peoples of Mauritania are Moslem.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Historically, Mauritania has been an area where Berber and Arab tribesmen from the north have pressed down upon Negro Africans to the south. The area's militant tradition is associated with the Almoravides, a fanatical Moslem sect that developed in the tenth century among the Lemtouma Berbers. The Almoravides destroyed the Sudanese empire of Ghana in the eleventh century; moved northward to conquer Morocco, Algeria, and southern Spain; and eventually returned to their desert domain. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Berber people of Mauritania were gradually subjugated by an Arab tribe from Egypt; since then the two groups have intermingled. Most present-day Moors consider themselves of Arab origin, even though they are predominantly of Berber stock.

The French extended their influence into Mauritania from Senegal during the second half of the nineteenth century, completing their control of the area about 1909. From 1920 to 1958 Mauritania was one of the colonial territories making up the large administrative unit of French West Africa. The Islamic Republic of Mauritania was established in March 1959 as an autonomous member of the new French Community. On November 28, 1960, the republic proclaimed its complete independence.

GOVERNMENT: Mauritania established a republican form of government in 1959 and adopted a new constitution in 1961. Under the 1961 constitution, executive power is held by a popularly elected president. Legislative functions are exercised by a National Assembly of 40 members, directly elected. President Moktar Ould Daddah has headed Mauritania's government since 1959. He is the leader of the Parti Progressiste Mauritanien, the country's only political party.

ECONOMY: The majority of both nomadic herdsmen and settled farmers live in a subsistence economy, supplemented by occasional wage employment or sale on a local market. Along the Senegal River the main crops are millet, maize, and peanuts, while in the larger oases dates, millet, and vegetables are cultivated. The ancient trade in gum arabic, salt, camels, and horses continues in modern times at the market town of Atar. Most of the country's wage and salary earners work directly or indirectly for the government.

Large-scale production of high-grade iron ore permitted a balanced budget in 1968 at $26.4 million. Rare earth metals--notably yttrium--were exported for the first time, and the Akjouju copper deposits were prepared for exploitation. The year 1968 also saw the beginning of offshore oil drilling.

EDUCATION: Traditionally education in Mauritania has been of a religious nature, and modern public education is a recent development. Less than 10 percent of the school age children are in school. Instruction is in Arabic and French. Teaching of Arabic is compulsory in secondary schools. In 1964 the government opened the first training college for primary teachers. Although a substantial part of the government's budget is devoted to education, the nomadic and seminomadic character of the population is a major hindrance to expansion of formal schooling.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 28, Independence Day.

MAURITIUS

LOCATION AND SIZE: Mauritius, an island nation in the Indian Ocean, lies about 500 miles east of Malagasy and about 2,450 miles southwest of India. With a 720-square mile area, it is half the size of Rhode Island.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The island was formed by volcanoes that left the land covered with rocks and a layer of lava 2 to 20 inches thick. A misty plateau in the center of the island rises 2,200 feet above sea level; this area sometime receives as much as 200 inches of rain annually. In the north the plateau slopes gradually to the sea, but it drops sharply to the southern and western coasts. Dry regions lie in the southwest; coral reefs surround all but the southern part of the island.

In the summer (November-April) temperatures average 79 degrees. In winter (June-October) temperatures average 72 degrees. Southwest winds bring heavy rains to the plateau; sometimes destructive cyclones strike the island.

CITIES: Port Louis, a city of 120,000, is the capital and leading port.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Population--one of the island's problems--has been growing so rapidly that it has been predicted that Mauritius will have nearly 3 million people by the year 2000. The estimated 1969 population is 825,000. The people are descendants of European settlers, African slaves, Chinese traders, and Indian laborers and traders. About two thirds are Indians; just under a third are creoles (mixed ancestry). The rest are Chinese or Europeans; most of the latter are of French descent. Two thirds of the people live in villages; most Europeans live in towns.

About half the people are Hindu; a third are Christian.

English is the official language, but French also may be used in the Legislative Assembly. Most people speak Creole, a French dialect. Some Indians speak one or more of six Indian dialects; the Chinese speak two Chinese dialects. Most Europeans speak French.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Mauritius was known to Arab sailors in the Middle Ages; but the Portuguese are credited with the European discovery of the island in the early sixteenth century. The Dutch, who landed in 1598, abandoned the island in 1710. Five years later, the French occupied Mauritius, renamed it Ile de France, and governed it from Réunion. British naval forces occupied it in 1810, and it was then ceded to Britain by the Treaty of 1814.

In 1833, when the British abolished slavery throughout the Empire, more than 75,000 slaves were freed in Mauritius, most of whom refused to continue working on the sugar plantations. As a result, planters brought nearly 450,000 Indian laborers to the island between 1835 and 1907.

In 1961 internal self-government was achieved; the island became independent on March 12, 1968.

GOVERNMENT: Mauritius is a constitutional monarchy; a governor-general, appointed by Britain, represents the Crown. Prime Minister Sir Seewoosagur Ramgoolam leads the coalition government. The 70-member Legislative Assembly is reelected every five years.

ECONOMY: More than a third of the national income is derived from the sugar industry; almost all exports are sugar or sugar products. About 90 percent of the farmland is planted with sugarcane. The cane is crushed and the sugar is processed in factories on the island. Two thirds of the workers grow, harvest, or process sugarcane.

Farmers also raise tea in the wet uplands; about two thirds of the crop is exported.

EDUCATION: Primary education is free, but not compulsory. About 60 percent of the people are literate. Mauritius has an agricultural college, a teacher-training college, and a university college.

FOOD: People grow vegetables in small gardens or between the rows of sugarcane. A few keep cattle, goats, or chickens; but almost all food must be imported.

MOROCCO

LOCATION: The Kingdom of Morocco on the northwest corner of Africa has a coastline stretching for nearly 1,700 miles along both the Atlantic and the Mediterranean and land frontiers with Algeria in the east and Spanish Sahara in the south. Morocco is the closest African country to Europe (separated only by the Straits of Gibraltar) and the nearest African neighbor of the United States (lying about 3,700 miles from Cape Hatteras, N.C.). Morocco covers an area of approximately 174,000 square miles, larger than California.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Two mountain ranges help vary the landscape and the climate. The Rif Mountains rise up sharply from the sunny Mediterranean coast, while the Atlas Mountains run through the entire length of the country and separate the fertile Atlantic coastal plain from the edge of the Sahara Desert. The Atlantic plain is the chief agricultural area and the site of most of the country's cities. It has a semitropical climate, much like Southern California, though more humid. The rainy season usually lasts from November through March, the dry season from April through October. In 1969 the small Spanish territory of Ifni was ceded to Morocco.

CITIES: Rabat, population 355,000, is the capital city and center of Morocco's government. A city by the sea, Rabat boasts of modern buildings and department stores while retaining traces of its ancient past. Nearby is the Atlantic seaport of Casablanca, population 1.3 million, the country's largest city and leading industrial and commercial center. Fez and Marrakech are famous old cities in the walled tradition with 350,000 inhabitants each. Tangier is an important port of over 150,000 on the Straits of Gibraltar.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Morocco's population in 1967 was estimated at 14.1 million, including 150,000 Europeans. The Moroccans are descended from indigenous Berbers and early Arab invaders. They tend to have dark hair and swarthy complexions. Islam is the established state religion, and Arabic is the principal language. Many urban Moroccans, particularly those in government positions, also speak French or Spanish. The native Jewish minority, numbering about 100,000, is largely urbanized.

Most city dwellers are thoroughly "Arabized" in custom and dress, but Moroccan professional people usually wear Western-style clothing and have a background of French education. Rural Moroccans, a majority of the population, live mainly in villages dominated by tribal chiefs and patriarchs; a great many of them still adhere to Berber social customs and speak Berber dialects.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Morocco was part of the Roman Empire in the early Christian era, but the most important event in early Moroccan history was the Arab invasion in the eighth century A.D. The conquering Arab armies brought to Morocco the enduring influence of Islam and the culture of the Arab East, while adding a new ethnic strain to the country's Berber inhabitants. Historically, Islam provided impetus for Moroccan expansion that led to the conquest of Spain by the Moors, lasting until 1492.

In modern times, several European powers competed for influence and control in Morocco, with France eventually predominating. By the Treaty of Fez in 1912 France acquired a protectorate over all of Morocco and granted Spain a zone of influence. The French protectorate lasted for 44 years, until 1956.

The drive for Moroccan independence was sparked by a small group of educated, upper-class nationalist leaders, centered primarily in the Istiqlal (Independence) Party. This Party issued a manifesto demanding independence as early as January 1944 and provided most of the leadership for the postwar movement. French deposition and exile of Morocco's King Mohammed V in August 1953 was a major landmark in the nationalist struggle, disorders occurring until the King was returned to his throne in November 1955. Political independence was recovered by a joint French-Moroccan declaration of March 2, 1956, and subsequent agreements restored the Spanish zone of influence and internationally administered Tangier to Moroccan control. King Mohammed V died in early 1961. He was succeeded by the 31-year-old Crown Prince, who was proclaimed King Hassan II.

GOVERNMENT: Morocco is a hereditary monarchy. Its present ruler is King Hassan II, who is a member of the Alaouite dynasty which has reigned over the country since the seventeenth century.

A constitution providing for representative government under a strong monarchy was presented by the King in November 1962 and approved by popular referendum in December 1962. In the constitution there is provision for a bicameral Parliament, with the lower house elected directly by the people and the upper body elected by members of various local organizations. The King retains the right to appoint and dismiss the prime minister and the right to dissolve Parliament.

The country's first Parliament was elected in mid-1963 and was convened for its inaugural session in November 1963. On June 7, 1965, however, the King suspended Parliament and assumed full executive and legislative powers himself. He appointed a "cabinet of technicians" to assist him. In 1967 a new prime minister was appointed.

ECONOMY: Over 70 percent of Morocco's people derive their living from farming and stock raising. The main agricultural products are wheat, corn, barley, citrus fruits, vegetables, and wine grapes. Mineral production is also important to the national economy. Morocco is the world's leading exporter and second largest producer of phosphate (after the U. S.). Significant quantities of cobalt, manganese, iron, lead, zinc, and some petroleum also are produced. A variety of small industrial enterprises--such as food-processing plants, cement factories, and tire factores--account for perhaps 15 percent of the country's income. Traditional Moroccan handicrafts--notably carpets, textiles, leather goods, and metal work--are manufactured under government supervision.

Despite varied resources, Morocco has insufficient food production, substantial unemployment, and an unfavorable balance of trade. France, the U. S., and the U. S. S. R. are supplying economic aid. The first satellite communication ground station in Africa began operating in Morocco in 1969.

EDUCATION: The rate of literacy among the adult population is estimated around 15 percent. Shortage of trained teachers is a major problem, and several thousand French teachers are still employed in the schools. Karaouin University at Fez, an ancient center of Islamic higher education, was reorganized on modern lines in 1963. The University of Morocco, founded at Rabat in 1957, is the country's first modern secular university.

FOOD: Traditional dishes are prepared from crushed grain, goat's milk, and cheese. Fruits and vegetables also are important supplementary foods. Meats usually consist of mutton, chicken, or squab. Pork and alcoholic drinks ordinarily are avoided on religious grounds.

HOLIDAYS: March 3 is now celebrated as Morocco's National Day. The holy month of Ramadan and various festivals associated with Islam also are observed.

NIGER

LOCATION AND SIZE: Niger is a landlocked country in the heart of West Africa. With 489,000 square miles of territory, it is larger than Texas and California combined. Niger stretches from the Sahara Desert on the north to Nigeria and Dahomey on the south, from Chad on the east to Mali and Upper Volta on the west. It is more than 500 miles from the sea and is largely inaccessible except by air.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Niger is a vast plateau with a mountainous region in the center and part of the Sahara in the north. The Niger River flows through the southwestern tip of the country for 185 miles. The climate is hot and dry, intensely so in the north. An unequal distribution of rainfall divides the country into a southern agricultural zone, a semi-arid grazing zone, and a large area of barren desert.

CITIES: The capital and principal city is Niamey, on the banks of the Niger, population about 40,000. The town of Zinder, near the Nigerian border, has 15,500 inhabitants.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The population of Niger is estimated at 3.5 million in 1967, about 7 persons per square mile; most of the people are rural. Despite racial admixture, the population is roughly divided between white and black. The blacks--mainly Hausa, Djerma, and Songhai--make up three fourths of the population and are settled farmers clustered in southern villages or fishermen along the Niger River. The white groups, living further north, are nomadic herdsmen and include the Touareg, Toubou, and Fulani people. About 85 percent of all the country's inhabitants are Moslem. Some black groups still adhere to traditional animist beliefs, while others combine animist traditions with the practice of Islam. French is the official language of Niger and the common tongue of the educated minority.

POLITICAL HISTORY: In premodern times Niger's territory was the scene of intermittent warfare among migrating tribes and rival empires, as Berber and Arab peoples from north and northeastern Africa pressed into the lands occupied by black Africans. European explorers arrived in the nineteenth century, and French military outposts were established by 1900. The French set up a civil administration in 1921 and organized Niger as a colony of French West Africa. Political parties developed after World War II, when Niger acquired its first elected assembly and sent representatives to the French parliament in Paris. In December 1958 Niger voted to become an autonomous republic within the French Community; on August 3, 1960, it proclaimed its complete independence.

GOVERNMENT: Under its 1960 constitution, Niger has a presidential form of government. Executive power is vested in the president of the Republic, who is elected for a five-year term. The cabinet is appointed by and responsible to the president. Members of the National Assembly are elected for five-year terms by universal suffrage. Regional units of administration are directed by centrally appointed officials. Niger's first president, Hamani Diori, was reelected in 1965. He is a former schoolteacher. The Niger Progressive Party is the only legal party.

ECONOMY: Agricultural development has been hindered by the acute shortage of water. Farming is based on production of millet for local consumption and peanuts for export. Raising cattle, sheep, and goats, the principal occupation, accounts for one fourth the gross national product. Meat equals 40 percent of the annual exports, and goatskins are a significant export. A small amount of mining is carried on. In 1967 Niger signed an agreement with France for exploitation of large, high-grade uranium deposits in the north. The first shipment of 750 tons is due in 1971.

EDUCATION: School enrollment has risen through energetic efforts of the government and may include a tenth of the children. Television is used to spread instruction to some village schools. Vocational training is given in several state schools: National School for Administration, National School for Male Nurses, and Kollo Agricultural Centre.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: December 18, Republic Day.

NIGERIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Lying in the western bulge of the African continent, Nigeria has a coastline on the Gulf of Guinea and land borders with Dahomey, Niger, Chad, and Cameroon. Its territory of 356, 000 square miles is about the size of Texas and Oklahoma combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Two contrasting areas--the hot humid swamps and forests in the oil-rich Niger Delta of the south and the hot dry plains of the north--form extremes in Nigeria's climate. The central Jos Plateau, rich in tin and over 5, 000 feet above sea level, is the most pleasant climatic area. The Niger River, joined by the Benue, is the third largest in Africa and has played an important part in the discovery, exploration, and economy of the country.

CITIES: Lagos, Nigeria's capital of 665, 000 people, is an island city in the Lagos lagoon near the western coast. Ibadan (population 627, 000) is an administrative and university center in the southwest. Port Harcourt in the southeast, near the mouth of the Bonny River, is a terminal for oil export. Kano, long a crossroad of trans-Saharan camel caravans, is the commercial and political center of the north as well as a major terminal for international air traffic; its population numbers over 295, 000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Nigeria, the most populous African country, has an estimated 61.4 million population (1967), which includes a great variety of African tribal groups. The four major ones are concentrated on regional lines. The Hausa people and their Fulani leaders occupy the northern region and are almost entirely Moslem. The western Yoruba and eastern Ibos are the main groups in the south. Christianity, led by the Missionary Society of the Church of England, has had a long steady impact in southern Nigeria. English is the official language and is widely used, but most people converse in regional or tribal dialects.

Northern people dress in traditional fashion with long white flowing robes; many of the women are veiled. In the south almost all Yoruba women dress in dark blue frocks. In a busy urban market the sea of blue-clad women is striking. Nigerian officials often wear distinctive tribal robes when visiting in the United States.

HISTORY: Recent archaeological finds indicate a very rich past in the Kingdom of Benin and Yorubaland (present-day Nigeria) during the middle ages. Documentation is difficult because all history was passed on by oral tradition.

Slave traders of various European nationalities were active along the coast of Nigeria in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. During the nineteenth century trade in palm oil replaced the traffic in slaves, and in 1861 the British established a colony at Lagos. As British influence gradually expanded along the coast and into the hinterland, protectorates were set up over southern and then northern Nigeria. In 1914 the three separate territories were joined to form the single British dependency of Nigeria.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Nigeria attained independence from Britain on October 1, 1960, and became a republic in 1963. Constitutionally, the republic was organized as a federation of four autonomous regions: Northern, Eastern, Western, Midwestern. Each region had its own regional legislature, cabinet, and premier. The federal government was headed by a prime minister, who served as chief executive and was responsible to the elected, lower house of the federal parliament. The president of the republic was chief of state.

This federal system was based on a compromise among rival political groups that reflected long-standing regional and tribal differences. The large, tightly disciplined northern party dominated the federal parliament (and government) in alliance with one of the smaller southern-based parties. Shifts in political alliances, protests against electoral trickery, and charges of regional corruption led to increasing dissension in 1964-65.

On May 30, 1967, the Eastern Region seceded from Nigeria and proclaimed itself the Republic of Biafra. The move plunged the country into civil war. Many of the 13 million Ibo tribesmen of Biafra are facing starvation because of the war.

GOVERNMENT: In January 1966, the Nigerian army took control of the government. The prime minister and two regional premiers were killed in the coup. The federal parliamentary system was replaced by a centralized regime, and efforts were made to abolish regional divisions. In July 1966 this regime was overthrown in a second army coup, which placed Col.

Yakubu Gowon, a young northern officer, in command of Nigeria's government. Nigeria is now divided into 12 states, each with a large degree of internal autonomy.

ECONOMY: In normal times over four fifths of Nigeria's people are occupied in farming, forestry, and livestock raising. About one fourth of the total agricultural output is exported, and agricultural exports are the chief source of foreign exchange earnings. The leading export products are cocoa, peanuts, palm kernels, palm oil, cotton, rubber, and wood veneer.

Although Nigeria does not rank as one of Africa's great mineral territories, it is a major supplier of columbite, an exporter of tin, and the only coal-producing country in West Africa. Petroleum in commercial quantities is exported in addition to yielding large quantities of natural gas. The southern part of the country also has a number of industrial establishments processing agricultural and forest products as well as factories producing textiles, tires, and other goods.

EDUCATION: Nigerian education follows the traditional British system and has been developed largely by missionary societies and voluntary agencies working under government grants and inspection. Nigerian authorities are focusing attention on development of secondary education, teacher training, and higher education. Four new universities have been founded in Nigeria since 1960, augmenting the excellent facilities of the University of Ibadan.

Shortage of university staff, funds, and teachers in primary and secondary schools are major problems. About three fourths of Nigeria's teachers are either uncertificated or probationary. The only American-style university in Africa is the University of Nigeria, begun in 1960.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: October 1, Independence Day.

RHODESIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Rhodesia--long known as Southern Rhodesia--lies in southeastern Africa between the Limpopo and the Zambezi rivers. It is a landlocked country bordered on the north by Zambia, on the east by Mozambique, on the south by the Republic of South Africa, and on the west by Botswana. With a total area of about 150,000 square miles, Rhodesia is slightly smaller than California.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: One of Rhodesia's outstanding geographic features is the Great Dyke, a 330-mile cross-country ridge with significant mineral wealth. Victoria Falls, on the Zambezi River, are shared with Zambia. Larger than Niagara, these falls are a mile and a quarter wide and over 300 feet high. The nearby Wankie Game Reserve is famous for elephants and other big game. Over three fourths of Rhodesia has an elevation between 2,000 and 5,000 feet. The highest point in the country is Mt. Inyangani, over 8,500 feet. The high altitude gives most of Rhodesia a pleasant climate. The rainy season is from November to March, with heaviest rainfall between January and March.

CITIES: Salisbury, the capital of Rhodesia, has a population of 324,000, including over 84,000 Europeans. The Africans have their living quarters in satellite towns outside the city proper. Salisbury is a modern city with tall buildings and broad streets, said to resemble Houston, Texas. Bulawayo, the second largest city, has a population of over 250,000. Umtali and Gwelo, the next largest cities, have around 80,000 inhabitants apiece.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The country's population, estimated at 4.6 million in 1968, is made up of 4.3 million Africans, 235,000 Europeans (whites), and 23,100 of other ethnic groups. Although the Africans outnumber the Europeans by a margin of 19 to 1, the Europeans constitute the largest white population in any country south of the Sahara, except the Republic of South Africa. White settlers first came to the territory in the late nineteenth century, and they have had a dominant role in the government since 1923. In addition to running the government, the Europeans now own and work about half of the land as cattle ranches and large farms; they own and run mines, and they have developed the cities. Most of the Europeans are of British or South African origin. The two major ethnic groups among the Africans are the Matabele, with whom the first settlers made treaties, and the Mashona. Both groups are Bantu, speaking various Bantu languages and dialects. English is the official language. Most Africans practice traditional animist religions, but a substantial proportion are Christian, as are the Europeans.

MODERN HISTORY: Substantial European penetration of the Rhodesian area began in the late nineteenth century, when Europeans began moving up from South Africa. Interested in gold mining and empire building, Cecil Rhodes obtained mineral rights in the area in 1888 and chartered the British South Africa Company in 1889. Rhodesia was administered by this company for 34 years. In 1923, Rhodesia (Southern Rhodesia) was formally annexed to the British crown and its settlers were granted rights of self-government. As a self-governing colony, Rhodesia exercised a high degree of autonomy, with Britain retaining jurisdiction over external affairs and some authority to safeguard human rights.

From 1953 to 1963 Rhodesia (Southern Rhodesia) was linked with the British protectorates of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The European-controlled Federation was beset by political turmoil and crisis and dissolved at the end of 1963. African governments were formed in the two northern territories during 1962 and led these territories to independence in 1964. Rhodesia was granted a new constitution in 1962, with some representation for Africans, but remained a British colony.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Political conflict between African nationalists and the European minority has been intensified in recent years, with African leaders pressing for transfer of control to the African majority and the Europeans fearing for their future if they yield control of government to the Africans. The problem has been complicated by Rhodesia's international legal status. Though self-governing in internal affairs, Rhodesia has been a colony of the British crown, and Britain has been reluctant to grant independence without some compromise solution that will satisfy both African aspirations and white-settler anxieties. When Rhodesian Prime Minister Smith on November 11, 1965, declared Rhodesia to be an independent state, he did so in defiance of the British government. Few nations have formally recognized the independence of Rhodesia.

In May 1968 the UN ordered an embargo on trade with and travel to Rhodesia.

GOVERNMENT: Rhodesia has a parliamentary system of government, headed by a prime minister, who represents the majority party in the Legislative Assembly. Constitutional arrangements of 1962 provide for an Assembly of 65 members, elected under a complex system which ensures that 50 members are Europeans and 15 members are Africans. The franchise is restricted on the basis of income, movable property, and education.

The Rhodesian Front led by Prime Minister Ian Smith was voted into power in 1962 and retained in 1965 by the European electorate. A referendum in June 1969 approved a draft constitution entrenching European control and changing Rhodesia into a republic. The official opposition is the United People's Party; a number of small parties also exist. November 11, 1969--the fourth anniversary of Rhodesia's Universal Declaration of Independence--has been proposed by Prime Minister Smith as Republic Day.

ECONOMY: The economy of Rhodesia has two distinct sectors--African and European. The African sector is largely subsistence agriculture for home consumption. The European sector is made up of three components--mining enterprise, farming and stock raising, manufacturing and light industry. Rhodesia for many years produced gold as its leading mineral and chief export. Since World War II it has become the world's third largest producer of chrome ore and its largest supplier of high-grade asbestos. Iron ore, copper, coal, zinc, lead, and cobalt are also extracted.

Although the UN's sanctions on trade have hampered Rhodesia's tobacco industry, the scheduled opening of 10 new mines during 1969-70 may take up the economic slack.

EDUCATION: Rhodesia has parallel systems of education for African and European students. The University College of Rhodesia is a multiracial institution, situated near Salisbury. In 1969 it enrolled 320 African and 560 European and Asian students.

RWANDA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Rwanda--a small country in east-central Africa--is bordered by Uganda on the north, the Congo on the west, Burundi to the south, and Tanzania to the east. With an area of over 10,000 square miles, it is slightly larger than Vermont.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Even though Rwanda is near the equator, it has a cool, pleasant climate due to its elevation. A series of high, level plateaus are surrounded by volcanic mountains. Heavy tropical rainfall and extensive farming in western Rwanda has depleted the soil and caused erosion. Temperatures usually range from 63 degrees to 73 degrees.

CITIES: Kigali, the capital and largest town, has a population of 4,300. Kigali and Butare--about 50 miles south of Kigali--have airfields.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Although a complete census has yet to be taken, the estimated 1969 population is 3.5 million. About 84 percent of the inhabitants are Bahutu tribesmen engaged mainly in subsistence farming. The remainder are Watusi, who raise and trade in cattle. Some pygmy hunters live in the forests.

Roman Catholicism is the predominant Christian religion, but half the people practice indigenous religions.

French and Kinyarwanda are the official languages. Most people speak Kinyarwanda, a Bantu language.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Bahutu farmers and pygmy hunters were among the original inhabitants. The Watusi arrived in the country from the north about 400 years ago following the great migrations of the period. The preeminent Watusi served as "lords," agreeing to protect Bahutu servants. In this way the Watusi dominated the area until 1959.

Rwanda and neighboring Burundi were part of German East Africa. After World War I Germany lost its African colonies and the territories came under the League of Nations' responsibility and Belgian administration. In 1946 it became a UN trust territory.

Political unrest followed after the death of King Mutara III in 1959. The Bahutu rebelled against the Watusi aristocracy, and in 1961 the people of Ruanda voted to make the country a republic. Ruanda-Urundi became independent as two countries--Rwanda and Burundi--on July 1, 1962.

GOVERNMENT: Rwanda is a republic headed by a president, who is elected to a four-year term and governs with the aid of the Council of Ministers. President Grégoire Kayibanda was elected in 1961 and again in 1965. The people elect the 44 members of the National Assembly to five-year terms. Rwanda is divided into 10 prefectures and 44 communes for local government.

ECONOMY: Coffee is the country's chief export. European companies operate tin and wolfram mines; these minerals account for one third of the country's exports. The nation has little industry and no railroads. A road link is under construction from Rwanda to Tanzania connecting with the railroad line to Dar es Salaam.

The territories of Ruanda and Urundi cooperated closely for many years; but after independence, relations between the two countries became strained. It is difficult and expensive for Rwanda to export and import goods and products.

EDUCATION: Public education is free and compulsory for children 7 to 16 years of age, but there are not enough classrooms to accommodate all the pupils. The literacy rate is 5 percent.

The Roman Catholics and other Christian churches operate most of the elementary schools. There are several teacher-training colleges and technical schools. A small university opened in 1963 in Butare.

SENEGAL

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Senegal lies on the Atlantic coast of the West African bulge. On the north the country is separated from the Islamic Republic of Mauritania by the Senegal River; on the east it is bordered by the Republic of Mali; on the south it is bounded by Portuguese Guinea and the Republic of Guinea. In the southwest, Senegal territory almost surrounds The Gambia. Senegal covers 76,000 square miles of territory (an area comparable to South Dakota).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Senegal is flat or rolling country with clumps of trees and open grassland. In the southeast plateaus as high as 1,640 feet form the foothills of the Fouta-Djalon Mountains which rise in Guinea. The country is drained by four major rivers flowing toward the Atlantic. There are two seasons--one dry (November-June), the other moist--but rainfall is plentiful only near the coast. Average temperatures range from about 75 degrees to 100 degrees in the course of the year.

CITIES: Dakar, the republic's capital and principal city, has a population of about 457,000. It is an important Atlantic seaport and a crossroads of international airlines linking Europe, America, and Africa. Other major towns include Rufisque, near Dakar (population over 50,000); St. Louis, on the northern coast (population around 40,000); and Ziguinchor, in the south (population about 23,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The major African groups in Senegal's estimated 3.8 million population (1968) are Wolofs (36 percent); Peuls--also called Fulani--(17.5 percent); Serer (16.5 percent); Toucouleurs (9 percent); and Diola (9 percent). There are about 50,000 non-African residents (Europeans, Syrians, Lebanese). French is the official language, and the two dominant local tongues are Wolof and Poular, the latter spoken by the Peuls and the Toucouleurs. Most of the population is Moslem (80 percent), but a large minority in the south still follow traditional animist religions. The small Christian group is largely Catholic. About 70 percent of Senegal's people are rural, and peanut cultivation is the principal occupation. The groups living in the Casamance area of southern Senegal are mainly rice farmers and those on the Cape Verde Peninsula are fishermen. Many Wolofs are civil servants.

HISTORY: French commercial establishments in Senegal date from the seventeenth century; the most important were located at St. Louis and Rufisque. French control extended to the interior in the nineteenth century, and in 1920 the territory became a colony. Africans living in the cities of Senegal acquired the rights of French citizenship in 1871 and were the only people of French West Africa to have such rights until the colonial reforms followed World War II.

During the first half of the twentieth century Senegal was administered as part of the federation of French West Africa. After World War II the country began to acquire internal autonomy, culminating in 1958 with autonomous membership in the French Community. In 1959 Senegal and Soudan combined to form the Mali Federation, which attained an independent status within the Community on June 20, 1960. The Federation broke up on August 20, 1960, when Senegal seceded and proclaimed itself the independent Republic of Senegal. It became a member of the United Nations on September 28, 1960.

GOVERNMENT: Senegal's 1963 constitution provides for a strong presidential system of government, with legislative power exercised by the 80-member National Assembly, elected by popular vote. The president, elected directly for a four-year term, is chief of state, chief executive, and head of the armed forces. He appoints and may dismiss the Council of Ministers, whose members are responsible to him. He may initiate legislation and also may ask the Supreme Court to rule on the constitutionality of a proposed law.

The governing party, Union Progressiste Senegalaise (UPS), led by President Leopold Senghor, holds all seats in the National Assembly and absorbed the opposition party in 1966.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the main economic activity. Peanuts, the chief cash crop, account for about 80 percent of the country's exports. Large quantities of rice and other food grains must be imported, although great efforts have been made to increase domestic food production in recent years. Dakar is one of the major commercial and industrial centers of West Africa. Its port is highly developed with modern equipment, and the city has a growing light industry based on processing of local products, manufacture of construction materials, and production of chemicals. Industrial development also is proceeding in other parts of Senegal. Cotton production is being developed, phosphates are now being exploited, petroleum exploration is under way, and commercial fishing is expanding rapidly.

EDUCATION: Because 45 percent of the population is under 15 years of age, the educational program is being expanded considerably. Literacy is estimated at 5 percent.

The postwar Institute of Higher Studies was reorganized as the University of Dakar in 1957. The university includes faculties of medicine and pharmacy, science, law, and liberal arts, as well as facilities for teacher training, economic and commercial studies, statistics and documentation, and other studies. Students are accepted from other parts of Africa.

Prompted by Presidential decree, rapid Africanization of curriculum at the primary, secondary, and university levels is being undertaken in Senegal. In addition, African teaching staffs are replacing Europeans in secondary schools and the university.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: April 4, Independence Day.

SIERRA LEONE

LOCATION AND SIZE: Sierra Leone is an Atlantic coastal state on the western bulge of Africa, between Guinea on the north and Liberia on the southeast. Slightly smaller than South Carolina, it has a total area of 27,925 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A peninsula--10 miles wide and 25 miles long--on the northern coast contains a large natural harbor, the Port of Freetown, as well as the thundery Mountains of the Lion, for which the country is named. The adjacent regions include a flat coastal strip fringed by mangrove swamps and a large upland plateau giving way to hills and mountains along the northeastern border with Guinea. The land is watered by several rivers and streams flowing down from the interior mountains to the sea and by abundant tropical rainfall from May through October. There is little seasonal variation in the country's hot, humid climate; the mean annual temperature is about 80 degrees.

CITIES: Freetown, the national capital and only large city, has a population of 148,000. An ocean port, its natural harbor is the third largest in the world and can accommodate over 200 ships of unrestricted draft. Bo, a provincial capital in the southwest, is the second largest urban center, population over 30,000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Of the country's 2.4 million people, about 80,000 are Creoles, descendants of freed slaves who settled here in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. The bulk of the people are tribal Africans, the principal groups being the Mende and the Temne. About 4,500 Europeans and Asians live in the country. In religion, the population is divided among Christians, Moslems, and pagans. English is the official language, but the vernacular in the Freetown area is Creole. Although the Creole spoken in this area is a form of English, most English-speaking people cannot understand it. The Mende language is widely spoken in the southern part of the country and Temne in the north. Most of the people are rural dwellers.

POLITICAL HISTORY: Portuguese explorers reached the coast of Sierra Leone in the mid-fifteenth century and were followed by English slave traders and pirates. In 1787 a British abolitionist society founded at Freetown a settlement for liberated slaves from England and America. In 1808 the settlement became a British crown colony and in 1896 a British protectorate was established over the hinterland behind the colony area. Representative institutions in the colony began at the end of the nineteenth century, but a protectorate assembly was set up only after World War II. The constitutional changes of the 1950's, under the leadership of Sir Milton Margai, broadened the country's political base and established Sierra Leone as a unitary state.

Sierra Leone became independent on April 27, 1961, under the leadership of Prime Minister Sir Milton Margai. He organized the Sierra Leone People's Party (SLPP) in 1951 and led the government from 1954 until his death in 1964. His party was the first political organization to bridge the gap between the westernized Creoles of the Freetown area and the traditional chiefs of the hinterland.

GOVERNMENT: The national legislature is a House of Representatives, composed of 12 paramount chiefs and 62 ordinary members elected by direct popular vote. There are two major parties--the SLPP and the All People's Congress--but a one-party system has been under consideration. When Sir Milton Margai died in April 1964, his half-brother, Sir Albert Margai, became prime minister. Sierra Leone is a fully independent member of the British Commonwealth; its titular chief of state is a governor-general who represents the Crown.

Following two military coups d'etat in 1967 and 1968, the country has returned to civilian rule under Prime Minister Siaka Stevens and the APC.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the basic economic activity, and the country's small farmers produce a variety of tropical crops. The main food crop is rice; the chief export crops are palm kernels, coffee, cocoa, and kola nuts. Palm fibers known as pissava, used in the manufacture of strong brooms and brushes, also are exported. Diamonds and iron ore, the chief mineral exports, account for about two thirds of all the country's overseas earnings. An oil refinery was opened in 1969. Since independence, Sierra Leone has received development assistance from Britain and some technical assistance from the U.S. Its government encourages private foreign investment.

EDUCATION: Fourah Bay College, on Mt. Auriol overlooking Freetown harbor, is the oldest institution of higher learning in modern Africa, founded as a missionary college in 1824. It is now the University of Sierra Leone. Njala is a new university college, founded in 1964 with U.S. assistance and pioneering in rural-oriented programs. Primary and secondary education are based on the British pattern, with secondary school graduates sitting for the West African School Certificate Examination. About 80 percent of the people in the Freetown area are literate, compared with an estimated 5 percent in the rest of the country.

SOMALI REPUBLIC

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Somali Republic, situated on Africa's northeast coast, includes both the former Italian-administered UN Trust Territory of Somalia and the former British Somaliland. Extending around the horn of Africa, the country is shaped like a large "7," with a wedge-shaped region of Ethiopia lying between the southern wing (former Trust Territory) and the northern wing (former British Somaliland). On the northwest it is bordered by the French Territory of Afars and Issas, on the north by the Gulf of Aden, on the east by the Indian Ocean, and on the southwest by Kenya. Its total area of about 246,000 square miles is nearly as large as Texas.

Large numbers of Somalis live outside the present (1966) frontiers of the Somali Republic. The Somali ethnic line extends deep into the Ogaden province of Ethiopia and is a source of conflicting nationalist claims. There are a substantial number of Somalis in northeastern Kenya and some in Afars and Issas. The foreign policy of the Somali Republic calls for unification of all areas inhabited by Somalis into a "Greater Somalia." This issue has led to recurrent crises between Somalia and the neighboring states of Ethiopia and Kenya, but in 1967-68 a settlement of these disputes was reached.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The southern region is flat with two rivers, the Scebeli and the Giuba, while the northern region is mountainous with plateaus ranging from 3,000 to 7,000 feet. The northern portion of the country, extending around the tip of the horn, is almost entirely desert land. The most fertile area is the valley of the lower Giuba in the extreme south. Weather is determined, during nine months of the year, by monsoon winds. The climate is most pleasant in October and November; the hottest period is from December through March. Rainfall is light and irregular.

CITIES: Mogadishu in the southeast is the national capital and largest city, population 170,000. The country's chief port--on the Indian Ocean--it is undergoing rapid expansion to accommodate oceangoing vessels and increased export trade. Hargeisa (population 45,000), Burao (10,000), and the port of Berbera (7,500) are all situated in the north.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the country's estimated 2.5 million Somalis are nomadic or seminomadic herdsmen living on the dry plains inland from the coast. The Somalis are classified as a Hamitic people. They are Moslems (Sunni), and Islam is the state religion. The non-Somali population consists of about 35,000 Arabs, 1,000 Indians, and 2,000 Italians. Somali is spoken by most of the population but as yet has no generally accepted written form. Arabic, Italian, and English are the official written languages.

MODERN HISTORY: In 1884 Britain initiated a number of "protectorate" treaties with Somali chiefs of the northern area. Italy's influence was first felt in Somaliland in 1885 when it obtained commercial opportunities in the territory through a treaty with the Sultan of Zanzibar. In 1889 it concluded more treaties with Arab and Somali rulers, proclaiming a protectorate from the Giuba River to the boundary of British Somaliland. At the termination of World War I the territory on the right bank of the Giuba was ceded to Italy by Britain. British forces occupied all Italian Somaliland during the East African campaign of World War II. From 1941 until its trust status began in 1950, the territory was under British administration. In July 1960 the territories of the former Trust Territory of Somalia and the former British Protectorate of Somaliland were united into a single independent state.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Italian administration of the Trust Territory of Somalia ended on July 1, 1960, when the territory attained independence. The British Protectorate of Somaliland was given its independence on June 26, 1960. The two territories joined together and became the Somali Republic on July 1, 1960. The National Assembly was formed by combining the two existing legislative assemblies, and a coalition government was established under a provisional constitution. The constitution was approved by the Somali people in a referendum held on June 20, 1961.

GOVERNMENT: The president--who must be a Moslem--is elected by the National Assembly for a six-year term and serves as chief of state. He appoints the prime minister and other members of the cabinet who administer the government. Legislative power is vested in the unicameral National Assembly of 123 members, elected by direct vote. The Somali Youth League, founded in 1943, is the major political party. In the March 1969 elections President Abdirashid Ali Shermarke and Prime Minister Mohammed Ibrahim Egal were returned to office.

ECONOMY: The country--one of Africa's poorest--has a pastoral-agricultural economy, based primarily on livestock herding (camels, cattle, sheep, and goats). Agricultural activity is confined to about 13 percent of the total land area, mainly in the vicinity of the two rivers and in the area around Hargeisa in the north. The principal crops, all in limited quantities, are corn, sorghum, peanuts, sugarcane, bananas, and cotton. Bananas are the leading cash crop, cultivated for export to Italy. Aromatic woods of frankincense and myrrh also are exported. Tuna, shark, and other warm-water fish are caught in the waters off the coast, and a small Somali fishing industry has been started. In 1968 the government announced the discovery of large uranium deposits. The Somali Republic has a chronic deficit in its budget and foreign trade, and it receives economic assistance from many nations.

EDUCATION: An educational development program has shown moderate success. Obstacles to educational progress include the absence of a written national language, the lack of trained teachers, and the nomadic character of much of the population. Oral Somali is used in primary school. After the first four years, English is used as the language of instruction in most schools. There is a University Institute at Mogadishu. Recent government policy has oriented its education system on the American pattern, stressing teacher training and expanding secondary education.

SOUTH AFRICA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of South Africa occupies the southernmost portion of the African continent between the Atlantic and the Indian Oceans. The country includes four provinces--the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange Free State--with a total area of about 472,000 square miles, nearly twice as large as Texas. The former German colony of South West Africa, about 318,000 square miles in area, also is administered as an integral part of the South African republic, but its status has long been in dispute between the South African government and the United Nations.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A land of much natural beauty, South Africa has a moderate, invigorating climate with cool summers and mild winters well-suited to European settlement. Since it lies in the southern hemisphere, its seasons are opposite to those of the United States.

The dominant land form of South Africa is the interior plateau, rising up to the high veld, 4,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation. Sheep, cattle, grains, and irrigated crops are raised on this generally dry plateau; and in the bush veld of northern Transvaal is Krueger National Park, a world-famous reserve for African wildlife. Around the Cape are rocky mountains and a coastal belt of orchards and vineyards. In the east the steep peaks of the Drakensberg separate the high veld from the green valleys and subtropical coast of Natal.

CITIES: South Africa has two capital cities: Pretoria, the administrative capital (population 448,000), and Cape Town, the legislative capital and seat of parliament (population 817,000). Mining and heavy industry center around the booming city of Johannesburg (population 1.3 million) in the Witwatersrand area of Transvaal. Other manufacturing industries are located in the large coastal cities of Durban (population 690,000) and Port Elizabeth (324,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: South Africa has a population of about 18.7 million, representing four major racial groups with diverse cultural backgrounds. There are 3.5 million white Europeans, 13 million negro Africans, about 1.9 million Coloreds of mixed blood, and over half a million Asians. The white minority itself is divided into two distinct groups--about 60 percent of the whites are Afrikaners, the other 40 percent are largely of British descent. The Afrikaners are descended primarily from Dutch pioneers who settled in South Africa in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; they speak Afrikaans, a language resembling Dutch; and they adhere largely to Dutch Reformed churches. The British element, whose forefathers arrived in the nineteenth century, speak English and are predominantly Episcopalians and Methodists with some Roman Catholics. The African majority includes many Bantu groups, the largest being the Xhosa, 3.7 million, and the Zulu, 3.2 million. The Asians are mostly Hindus and Moslems of Indian origin. The country's official languages are Afrikaans and English.

The white minority, about three fourths urbanized, runs the country's government and its economy. About two thirds of the Coloreds and Asians also dwell in urban areas (the Coloreds chiefly in Cape Town, the Asians in Durban). Half of the Africans still live in rural areas "reserved" for their occupancy, where tribal patterns of society prevail; over 2 million of them dwell on white farms; and over 3 million of them live in mining compounds and urban areas. The Africans outside the "reserves" provide the basic manual labor force in nearly all phases of the country's economy and include a growing university-educated minority.

Interracial relations in South Africa are among the most complex in the world. Industrial development, accompanied by increasing influx into the cities, has added a host of new problems to historic tensions. A legal color bar long has denied Negro Africans the right to own land, to sit in parliament, to live in white neighborhoods, and to move from place to place without special permit. Since 1950, legal restrictions on the nonwhite majority have been greatly expanded under the government policy of apartheid (separation of races). The apartheid restrictions have enhanced the grievances of the nonwhites and have been the object of dissension within the white minority itself.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Before 1961 this country was called the Union of South Africa. A united South Africa was formed in 1910, a fusion of two British coastal colonies (the Cape and Natal) with two formerly independent Afrikaner republics (Transvaal and Orange Free State). Political union followed the Boer War, in which Britain triumphed over the Afrikaner farmers of the interior (the Boers). Both British and Afrikaner residents were given equal rights under the new national government.

On May 31, 1961, South Africa became a republic and withdrew from the British Commonwealth of Nations. The decision to become a republic reflected a long-standing desire of the Afrikaners, while the decision to discontinue membership in the Commonwealth was a governmental reaction to criticism of its racial policies.

GOVERNMENT: The republic of South Africa has a parliamentary system of government, with a president as chief of state and a prime minister as head of government. The president is elected by joint session of the two houses of parliament (Senate and House of Assembly). The prime minister and his cabinet are responsible to the lower House of Assembly. All members of parliament must be citizens of white descent.

In September 1969 the Coloreds--voting for the first time since 1956--chose 40 members of a 60-member Colored representative council--the other 20 are state appointed. The creation of this council terminated previous Colored representation in the House of Assembly and further separates the two racial groups.

The 1959 apartheid legislation known as the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act calls for consolidation of rural Bantu territories into eight autonomous "homelands" (Bantustans) based on tribal groupings. Africans working in urban areas would vote in the Bantustan corresponding to their ethnic origin. Four Bantustans are in operation.

ECONOMY: While agriculture plays a sizable role in the national economy, it is far outdistanced by mining and industry. Possessing large deposits of gold, diamonds, uranium, coal, iron, copper, and other valuable minerals, South Africa is the industrial giant of the African continent with a large export economy.

EDUCATION: At primary and secondary levels, the provincial governments are responsible for education of European, Colored, and Asian children, while the national government has assumed responsibility for education of African children. There are separate schools for each racial group, and attendance is compulsory only for white children. More than half the eligible African children attend school.

Legislation approved in 1959 banned attendance of nonwhite students at the nine South African universities except for medical students and those taking correspondence courses at the University of South Africa. To meet nonwhite needs for higher education, the government has established several new university colleges, with enrollment at each confined to one racial group. Fort Hare University College, which once attracted nonwhite students from all over the country, is restricted to members of the Xhosa tribe. About 4, 500 nonwhites are enrolled in the various universities, but a large proportion are taking correspondence courses only.

FOOD: Diet and food customs in South Africa reflect the diverse cultural background of its people--Dutch, English, Indian, and African. Afrikaner dishes and eating habits are typically Dutch, while British South Africans generally prefer English food. The country's great shellfish specialty is the langouste, known abroad as the South African lobster tail. Mutton is used in many meat dishes, particularly stews and pies.

HOLIDAYS: The official national day is May 31, commemorating the merger of the four South African colonies in 1910 and the establishment of the republic in 1961. The great Afrikaner nationalist holiday is December 16, celebrating the victory of Boer Pioneers over Zulu tribesmen at Blood River in 1838. This military victory was the turning point in the struggle between the white settlers and the various Bantu tribes for control of the South African interior.

SUDAN

LOCATION AND SIZE: Africa's largest country, the Republic of Sudan is nearly one third the size of the continental United States. Lying south of Egypt and across the Red Sea from Arabia, it serves as a bridge between Africa and the Middle East. In addition to Egypt, the Sudan's neighbors on the African continent are Libya and Chad to the west; the Central African Republic, the Congo Democratic Republic, Uganda, and Kenya to the south; and Ethiopia to the southeast.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Geographically, the Sudan includes three major areas: a large desert area in the north and west; a small fertile area at the juncture of the Blue and White Nile Rivers, and a vast swampland and rain forest area in the south. The waters of the Nile flow across the land from south to north; the Blue and White Niles converge in the central region, near Khartoum, to form the main River Nile which sweeps on to Egypt and the Mediterranean. Hot, humid weather prevails in the southern and central regions, hot and dry weather in the north. There is a rainy season from May through October, but the far north is seldom touched by rainfall. The most temperate climate is found in the hills near the Red Sea.

CITIES: Khartoum, the capital, is a spacious city of 132,000 people at the point where the two Niles meet. It was rebuilt by the British at the turn of the century in the form of a Union Jack. The Khartoum area, including North Khartoum and Omdurman, is the center of the Sudan's political, cultural, and commercial life. Omdurman, the historic capital, across the Nile from Khartoum, is inhabited by 162,000 people and has the appearance of a Middle Eastern rather than an African city. Port Sudan, with a population around 50,000, is the country's only modern port, lying along the Red Sea. It is an important stopping place for African Moslems on their way to Mecca.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: The Sudan's 14 million people are of Arab and Negroid stock. About 10 million are Arabic-speaking Moslems, living in the northern and central regions and representing an historic mixture of Arab immigrants and local Sudanese. The south is inhabited by tribal people speaking many different African languages and dialects. Generally speaking, the southern people are Negroid (al-Sudan means "the Blacks" in Arabic) and pagan, with some Christian and Moslem elements. Although Arabic is the official language of government, English is spoken by most officials and educated Sudanese. Scarcely 10 percent of the country's people live in cities, and much of the population is nomadic or seminomadic.

Differences between the Arabized Moslem people of the north and the African Negro tribes of the three southern provinces constitute a major problem. In 1955 these differences were reflected in a mutiny of southern Sudanese troops against the imposition of northern officers to replace the British. Subsequently, the central government's moves to Arabize and secularize the schools were opposed by Christian minorities in the south. Christian missionaries were expelled from the country in 1962-64. Conditions of chronic fighting and violence have caused many southern Sudanese to seek refuge in neighboring states.

Southern grievances have served to perpetuate guerrilla warfare by an organization called the Anya Nya. Two political groups concerned for southern autonomy also have emerged: the Southern Front and the Sudan African National Union. A round-table conference on the southern problem held in 1965 provided an opportunity for discussion of north-south differences but did not produce a solution for the problem of the South's constitutional status.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Archaeological evidence indicates that the Sudan was one of the oldest and most influential countries in Africa. Although not generally known, throughout the middle ages the Sudan was the seat of two of the oldest and strongest Christian kingdoms in all Christendom. Later it was under the rule of a Moslem sultanate.

Sudan's modern history dates from its conquest in 1820-22 by Egyptian forces. In 1881 a religious leader proclaimed himself the messiah (mahdi) and began a revolt against Egyptian overlordship. His forces took Khartoum in 1885 and controlled most of the Sudan for the next 13 years. Reconquered by an Anglo-Egyptian force under Lord Kitchener, the Sudan in 1899 was proclaimed a condominium under joint British and Egyptian administration. Britain was the dominant force in the "joint administration," which lasted until 1954. An Anglo-Egyptian agreement of 1953 terminated the joint administration and provided for Sudanese self-government and self-determination. Following a transitional period of internal self-government, the Sudanese parliament in December 1955 voted for independence. Britain and Egypt assented, and on January 1, 1956, the Sudan became an independent state.

GOVERNMENT: The Sudan's parliamentary system of government was terminated by a military coup in 1958, and for the next six years power was concentrated in the Supreme Council of the Armed Forces led by General Ibrahim Abbud. In 1964 the military regime was overthrown by a popular revolt, and a coalition government evolved based on the two parties which won the most Assembly seats--the rural-based Umma Party and the urban-based National Union Party. Ismail Azhari was elected president by the Assembly in 1965.

In May 1969 President Azhari's government was overthrown by a military coup d'etat. A new National Revolutionary Council was formed led by Col. Jaafar Mohamed Al-Namiri, who assumed all power in the country and proclaimed Sudan a "democratic republic." A 19-man cabinet was named, led by the former chief justice. The new government indicated it would not enter into diplomatic relations with the United States.

ECONOMY: An agricultural and pastoral country, the Sudan depends heavily on the production and export of high-quality, long staple cotton. Cotton accounts for about two thirds of the country's export earnings and half of the government's financial revenues. The basic food crops are sorghum, millet, corn, wheat, sesame, peanuts, and dates. Sudan's second largest export item is gum arabic, obtained from acacia trees and used as an adhesive for stamps and envelopes as well as an ingredient in sweets.

Most of the cotton crop is produced and marketed through regional development schemes initiated and controlled by the government. The renowned Gezira scheme, developed near the confluence of the Blue and White Niles, supports about 30,000 tenant farmers on land irrigated by an elaborate canal system and is being enlarged by the Managil Extension scheme. The Roseires Dam on the Blue Nile near the Ethiopian border was completed in 1966. Other development projects are directed toward meeting the need for diversification of farm crops, extension of the railway system, and construction of highways. Assistance has been provided by the World Bank.

EDUCATION: The government's educational program has been directed toward creation of a unified school system and expansion of educational facilities. Since 1957, most of the mission schools in the south have been taken over by the government; the British curriculum has been adopted universally; Arabic has been made the language for elementary instruction and English the language in secondary and university institutions. Teacher training facilities have been expanded, and adult education as well as educational opportunities for girls have been increased. Sudan's outstanding technical school is the Khartoum Technical Institute. The University of Khartoum was formed by joining two famous schools--Gordon Memorial College and the Kitchener Medical School. The literacy rate is 10 percent.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 1, Independence Day.

SWAZILAND

LOCATION AND SIZE: A small country in southern Africa, Swaziland is surrounded by the Republic of South Africa on three sides and by Mozambique on the east. Swaziland has an area of 6,700 square miles--about the size of Hawaii.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Swaziland is one of the best-watered areas in southern Africa. Four main rivers flow eastward across the country, supplying water for power and irrigation. Mountains covered with pine forests rise 5,000 feet above sea level along the western border. Rolling grassy midlands, east of the mountains, level off into a low plain covered with bush and grass.

CITIES: There are two capital cities. The Swazi National Council meets at Lobamba--the traditional capital. Mbabane (population 12,400) is the administrative capital and largest town. Manzini is the commercial center (population 13,700).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 90 percent of the 400,000 population (1969 estimate) are Swazi people, most of whom raise livestock and farm. Each Swazi male belongs to an age group organized by the Ngwenyama (hereditary leader of the Swazi). Formerly, these groups served as military regiments; today they may work for the royal family or take part in Swazi ceremonies.

About 8,000 Europeans live in Swaziland.

The official languages are English and siSwati (a Bantu language similar to Zulu).

Swazis belong to various Christian groups. The Church of the Nazarene Mission (Scotland) has been particularly active in medical and education work. Most Swazis practice traditional religions.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: British contact with the Swazi first occurred in the 1840's when the Swazis requested assistance in their recurring difficulties with the Zulu. After the independence of South Africa, Swaziland became one of three territories contiguous to South Africa but governed by a British High Commissioner in Pretoria. Until independence Swaziland was known as a High Commission Territory. In 1967 Swaziland gained internal self-government; on September 6, 1968, it received full independence with King Sobhuza II as head of state.

GOVERNMENT: The 1967 constitution provides for a hereditary monarchy. The Ngwenyama is the traditional ruler of the Swazi nation; he is also king and appoints a prime minister and cabinet. He approves the laws passed by parliament, which consists of the House of Assembly and the Senate. The Ngwenyama and the queen mother decide matters involving Swazi law and custom. The Swazi National Council, to which all males belong, is an advisory body. When the king dies, one of his wives is chosen as the next queen mother and her son becomes the king.

ECONOMY: Europeans control the export economy and own half the land area. Sugarcane, rice, citrus fruits, beef cattle, and hides are exported.

The mining industry accounts for one half of the national income. Asbestos and iron ore are leading exports; there are also deposits of coal, gold, barite, and kaolin.

Swaziland has the largest man-made forest in Africa--the sixth largest standing forest reserve in the world.

About 9,000 Swazi work in the gold mines of South Africa.

EDUCATION: In the late 1960's about 48,000 children were attending school. The Swaziland campus of the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland (UBLS) provides for higher education.

TANZANIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The United Republic of Tanzania consists of the former republics of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Its territories in previous years were under the administration of Britain.

The Tanganyikan area occupies 361, 00 square miles of territory in the eastern part of the African continent. Its territory extends from the Indian Ocean to the great lakes of the interior (Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, Lake Nyasa). Its continental neighbors are Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, and Burundi to the north; Mozambique, Malawi, and Zambia to the south; and the Congo Democratic Republic to the west.

Zanzibar is comprised of two principal islands, Zanzibar and Pemba, lying about 25 miles off the northeast coast of Tanganyika. The islands have a combined area of about 1, 020 square miles, slightly smaller than the state of Rhode Island, and a racially diverse population of 354, 000 Africans, Arabs, and Indians.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Tanzania's most renowned geographical feature is Mt. Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain (19, 340 feet) on the African continent. Its peaks are snow-clad the year round although situated only 3 degrees from the equator. Aside from the highlands, found mainly in the northeast and southwest, most of the country is open plateau. Many of Africa's big game roam these dry plains, and Sarangete National Park in northern Tanzania is where most African animal films are made. Along the edges of the plateau are trenchlike depressions characteristic of the Rift Valley System which extends through most of East Africa.

Climatically, Tanzania can be divided into three zones--the warm humid coastal region; the hot dry central plateau; and the semitemperate areas around the Kilimanjaro and Meru mountains. Over half of the land area is either too arid or too infested by the tsetse fly to be of practical use.

CITIES: Dar-es-Salaam (meaning Haven of Peace) is Tanzania's capital, chief port, and largest city, population about 272, 000. Located on the Indian Ocean, it has hot and humid climate. Many of the city's Asians belong to the Ismaeli Moslem sect of which the Aga Khan is the head. Tanga, on the coast north of the capital, was a center of ancient Arab culture; today it is the seat of the sisal industry, with a population of 60, 000. The smaller towns of Arusha and Moshi in the northeast are coffee-growing centers where large African cooperatives have developed. The city of Zanzibar has a population of about 58, 000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Continental Tanzania has about 10. 3 million people. Almost all are African; about 1 percent are of Indo-Pakistani, Arab, and European origin. The Europeans, of several different nationalities, are farmers, civil servants, missionaries, and commercial people. The Asians are in the retail trade and are skilled or semiskilled workers. Most Africans are peasant farmers, merchants, and civil servants.

The Africans belong to over 100 different tribes, varying in size, social structure, and language. The largest tribe is the Sukuma, whose language belongs to the Bantu group. The Wachagga, another Bantu-speaking tribe, are skilled in coffee production and marketing and are mainly Christian in religion. The Masai, a Nilo-Hamitic tribe, are pastoral people who value their cattle as much for ceremonial as for practical purposes.

Swahili, the East African lingua franca (common vernacular), is the official language. It is spoken and understood throughout the country. English is the most widely known European tongue. The African population is mainly pagan, but includes a substantial number of Christians and over 2 million Moslems.

MODERN HISTORY: The coastal region of Tanzania was subject historically to Arab, Persian, and Portuguese influence. In the mid-nineteenth century the interior region was raided for slaves to work the clove plantations of the Omani Sultan of Zanzibar. European influence was extended over the area in the closing decades of the nineteenth century. In 1890 Germany established a protectorate over Tanganyika and Britain secured a protectorate over Zanzibar. As a result of Germany's defeat in World War I, Tanganyika came under British administration--first as a League of Nations mandate and later as a United Nations trust territory. Tanganyika's social and political development was accelerated after World War II, under the prodding of successive UN visiting missions. A modern African nationalist movement, the TANU, was founded by Julius Nyerere in 1954, and thereafter Tanganyika proceeded rapidly along the road to self-government (May 1961) and independence (December 1961). Union with Zanzibar was precipitated by the revolutionary events of 1964 in the island state.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Tanganyika became a republic under a constitution that vested executive power in a president elected by universal suffrage. Zanzibar received its independence in December 1963 as a constitutional monarchy ruled by its hereditary sultan. In January 1964 the sultan's government was overthrown by revolution, and Zanzibar was proclaimed a People's Republic with Sheikh Abeid A. Karume as its first president.

On April 26, 1964, the two countries joined to form the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Julius Nyerere of Tanganyika became president and Sheikh Karume became first vice-president. Under the articles of union, Tanganyika took authority over Zanzibar's foreign affairs, defense policy, and certain emergency powers. Zanzibar retained responsibility for its internal affairs.

The name of the new country was officially changed to the United Republic of Tanzania on October 20, 1964.

GOVERNMENT: In Tanzania executive power is vested in the president and legislative authority in a unicameral National Assembly. Cabinet ministers are appointed by the president.

In 1965 Tanzania was made officially a one-party state, with President Nyerere's Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) as the mainland party and Vice-President Karume's Afro-Shirazi Party as the party of Zanzibar.

In September 1965 President Nyerere was reelected for a five-year term. Parliamentary elections were held that same month in more than 100 mainland constituencies. All candidates were required to be members of TANU, but the party selected two candidates to compete for office in each constituency. In addition to the elected mainland members, the National Assembly includes Zanzibar members and a variety of members representing regions and institutions.

ECONOMY: Tanzania's economy is predominantly agricultural and pastoral. The main cash crops for export are sisal (used for making rope), cotton, and coffee; pyrethrum (used in insecticides) and hides and skins also are marketed abroad. Most of the Africans are primarily subsistence farmers, marketing only small surpluses of their food crops. The government's development program aims to bring more African farm families into the cash economy by helping them make better use of their land by encouraging more cooperative enterprises.

Diamonds are the country's principal mineral export, obtained from the large Williamson mine at Mwadui, south of Lake Victoria. The Williamson diamonds are largely gem stones, mined in an open-pit operation. Other minerals, including gold, tin, and lead, exist in Tanzania but not in large commercial quantities. There are a number of industrial plants concerned with the processing of agricultural and livestock products, and several light engineering and general service enterprises have been established in recent years.

A motor road and railroad linking Dar-es-Salaam and neighboring Zambia are being built with multi-national assistance. The tsetse fly and lack of water for agricultural purposes have been the greatest material deterrents.

In 1968 the government successfully nationalized all foreign-owned banks. The monolithic National Union of Tanganyika Workers holds joint ownership in many industries and from its own resources has built several thousand units of workers' housing. The 1969-74 five-year plan highlights further economic independence for the rural people by stressing self-reliance rather than foreign aid.

EDUCATION: The official objective of education in Tanzania is a minimum eight-year primary course for all children. To this end every district in the country has a primary school, either government or voluntary. About half of the country's youngsters can now be accommodated in the early primary grades, but facilities from grades 5 to 8 are limited. The system of elementary and secondary education leads to examinations equivalent to an American high school diploma. The University of Tanzania, at Dar-es-Salaam, was founded in 1961.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: April 26, Union Day.

TOGO

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Togo lies on the underside of the western bulge of Africa--between Ghana on the west and Dahomey on the east. It occupies a narrow strip of land stretching 350 miles north from the Gulf of Guinea. Only 31 miles wide at the coast and 100 miles at its widest point, Togo has a total area of about 22,000 square miles (about the size of Maryland, Delaware, and New Jersey).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: A chain of mountains about 2,000 feet high runs through the country from southwest to northeast. In the south, coastal lagoons give way to a gradually rising plateau. North of the mountains there is a lower plateau area divided by streams and depressions, followed by open savannah with a few low hills. Togo has a warm, humid, tropical climate with an average temperature of 81 degrees. Annual rainfall varies from 40 inches in the north to 70 inches in the south. The country's soils are generally poor.

CITIES: Lome, the capital and main port, is the largest urban center, population about 86,000. Other important towns are Sokode (population 15,000); Palime (12,000); Anecho (10,000); and Atakpame (10,000). Most of the country's people are rural villagers.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Togo's population of 1.7 million is composed of many different African groups and about 2,400 non-Africans. The three largest groups are the Ewe and the Adja-Ouatchi peoples in the south and the Kabrai-Losso in the north. The Ewe people are divided by the Togo-Ghana border, and the other two groups also have large numbers in Dahomey. French is the official language, used in government, commerce, and the schools. Among the various African tongues, Ewe is predominant in the south, and the Twi language predominates in the north. The country has about 370,000 Christians and about 135,000 Moslems (largely in the north), but most adhere to traditional local religions.

POLITICAL HISTORY: From 1884 until World War I, Togo was part of the German protectorate of Togoland. After that war Togoland was divided between France and Britain under League of Nations mandates. In 1946 both mandated territories were placed under UN trusteeship.

French Togoland was reorganized as the Republic of Togo as a result of a plebiscite held in October 1956. The new republic acquired complete internal autonomy in 1957-58 and attained full independence on April 27, 1960 (following termination by the UN of the trusteeship status).

In 1957 British Togoland joined with the Gold Coast to form the new nation of Ghana. Since then there has been intermittent friction between Togo and Ghana based on sentiments among the Ewe peoples for reunification and for union of Togo with Ghana.

GOVERNMENT: Togo has a president serving as head of state, chief executive, and supreme commander of the armed forces. Cabinet members are appointed and dismissed by the president. Legislative authority is vested in the unicameral National Assembly of 56 members.

The country's first president, Sylvanus Olympio, was assassinated in January 1963. His successor, Nicolas Grunitzky, was elected in May 1963 for a five-year term. A new National Assembly was elected at the same time from a single list of candidates representing four major Togolese parties. In July 1963 Togo's government concluded a series of agreements with France pertaining to defense, technical assistance, and other matters. In 1967 Grunitzky was replaced by Etienne Eyadéma, head of the armed forces.

ECONOMY: Most of the population are engaged in farming, mainly on a subsistence basis. The principal cash export crops are cocoa and coffee, followed by palm kernels, peanuts, cotton, and copra. Cocoa is the main source of foreign exchange. Trade is primarily with France and the franc zone. A fairly large artisan class is engaged in pottery making, weaving, basketry, and wood carving, but industrial activity is limited to a few processing plants. Phosphates offer the chief prospect for economic advancement. Small deposits of chromite, bauxite, and iron ore have been located but afford little prospect of early exploitation.

In 1969 the five-year plan (1966-70) was reviewed, placing greater stress on increased Africanization of private business and extension of bank credit to more Togolese entrepreneurs.

EDUCATION: Major progress has been made in mass education since World War II. About half of the school age children attend school, and the proportion for urban areas is considerably higher than the nationwide figure. Most pupils are enrolled in six-year primary schools. There are five academic secondary schools, three teacher-training schools, and three technical-training (apprenticeship) centers. An Institute for Higher Studies was established in 1965 for students from both Togo and Dahomey. Twenty percent of the total national budget is allocated to education.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: April 27, Independence Day.

TUNISIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Tunisia, situated on the northern coast of Africa, lies about halfway between Gibraltar and Suez, where the Cape Bon peninsula curves within 90 miles of Sicily. A small country about the size of Louisiana, Tunisia is wedged between two larger African neighbors--Algeria on the west and Libya on the east.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Northern Tunisia is well-watered and fertile, with many wooded hills and plateaus. Much of the lowland along the eastern coast also is of agricultural importance, supporting livestock and olive groves. The southern interior, which merges into the Sahara Desert, is dry and barren and suitable only for grazing herds and seminomadic peoples. Except for the extreme south, the country has a Mediterranean-type climate with a rainy season from December to March and a dry summer season from June to September.

CITIES: Tunis, the capital and largest city, is a bustling commercial center and seaport with a population of 662,000. While part of Tunis is European in style, many trading and marketing activities are conducted in small shops along narrow, winding streets of the old Moslem city. The other major cities are Sfax (66,000), Sousse (48,000), and Bizerte (47,000), on the coast, and Kairouan (40,000), Tunisia's Moslem holy city founded in A.D. 766.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of Tunisia's estimated 4.7 million people are Moslem Arabs and Berbers. Only 120,000 are Europeans, chiefly French and Italians. The 65,000 Jews represent one of the oldest ethnic groups in the country. Arabic is the national and official language. However, French is widely used and continues to be taught in most Tunisian schools. Traditional Arab customs of dress and family life prevail in rural Tunisia and in older sections of the cities, but more modern ways have been adopted in urban centers.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Tunisia's recorded history dates from the twelfth century B.C. when Phoenician traders established permanent settlements in the area. The great Phoenician city of Carthage, destroyed by Rome in 146 B.C., stood near the site of present-day Tunis. The Romans were followed by successive waves of conquerors--Teutonic Vandals, Byzantine Greeks, Moslem Arabs, and, in the sixteenth century, the Ottoman Turks. Tunisia remained within the Ottoman Empire until 1881, when the French landed and established a protectorate.

Nationalism grew in Tunisia after World War I and increased after 1934 when the Neo-Destour (New Constitution) Party was formed. Led by Habib Bourguiba, this party (along with the General Union of Tunisian Workers) spearheaded Tunisia's drive for independence following World War II. On March 20, 1956, Tunisia attained its independence from France. On July 25, 1957, an elected Tunisian Constituent Assembly deposed the country's hereditary ruler (the Bey) and proclaimed the Republic of Tunisia, with Mr. Bourguiba as first president.

GOVERNMENT: The constitution of the Tunisian Republic, adopted on June 1, 1959, provides for a strong executive. The president appoints the cabinet ministers, who are responsible only to him. He determines national policy, and he may legislate by decree when the National Assembly is not in session. His term of office is five years. Members of the Assembly also are elected for five-year terms.

Tunisia held its most recent elections in November 1964, and President Bourguiba was unopposed. His party, now called the Destourian Socialist Party, is the only party represented in the government and the National Assembly. A new election for president is planned for November 1969.

ECONOMY: About two thirds of the people are engaged in agriculture, supplying much of the country's food needs as well as the bulk of its exports. Grain is the chief crop, and Tunisia is the world's fourth largest producer of olive oil. Mining enterprises complement the agricultural economy, the leading mineral products being phosphate rock and iron ore. Although Tunisia has few natural resources, the GNP has risen 50 percent since 1958.

Withdrawal of French personnel and capital since independence weakened Tunisia's economy. The U.S. has provided $570 million in economic aid and technical assistance. In 1969 this was 52 percent of all foreign aid. Several other countries plus the World Bank also are contributing to its development program. Petroleum was discovered in 1964 in sufficient quantity to meet domestic needs.

Tourism has risen in recent years; in 1968 $44 million was realized from this source. Other new industries include steel and auto-assembly plants, a paper mill, and a sugar refinery.

EDUCATION: Tunisia's government has launched a 10-year education plan (1961-72) for achieving universal primary education and expanding facilities for secondary education. A shortage of qualified teachers and the scattered rural population are among the major problems.

The number of Tunisian children of primary school age who attend the six-year course has risen from 30 percent at the time of independence to 76 percent today.

The University of Tunis, founded in 1960, incorporates earlier institutions.

FOOD: As in most Arab countries, bread is the staple of the Tunisian diet. Grains, often boiled and crushed, are served in various dishes. Goat's milk, white cheese, and fruits (grapes, olives, and dates) are also important foods. Guests may be honored with specialty dishes of barbecued sheep, mutton, or chicken.

HOLIDAYS: June 1 is celebrated as the official National Day; it marks the adoption of the constitution in 1959 and the anniversary of President Bourguiba's return from exile in 1955. March 20, Independence Day, is also a major national holiday.

LOCATION AND SIZE: An east African country about the size of Oregon, Uganda is entirely landlocked and relies on a railroad through Kenya for access to the Indian Ocean. Its other neighbors are the Sudan to the north, Tanzania and Rwanda to the south, and the Congo Democratic Republic to the west.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Uganda is a land of varied scenery, with high mountains, steep-sided valleys, upland plateau, vast swampland, and large lakes. In the west the highest peak of the Ruwenzori range rises over 16,000 feet; in the east Mt. Elgon rises up to 14,136 feet. Lake Victoria, shared with Tanzania, is one of the largest lakes in the world and the source of the White Nile River (mainstream to the River Nile). Although Uganda lies wholly within the tropics, its climate is somewhat tempered by high altitude. In most parts of the country temperatures range from 60 degrees to 80 degrees the year round, and the rainfall is ample.

CITIES: Kampala, the capital, lies near Lake Victoria; it is Uganda's largest city and main commercial center (population 70,000). Jinja, near the Owen Falls Dam on the Victoria Nile, is the country's second largest urban center, with over 30,000 inhabitants. Entebbe, former administrative capital of Uganda, is a town of 17,000 people on a peninsula in Lake Victoria.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Uganda's population of over 7.9 million is overwhelmingly African; white settlement is not permitted. There is an Asian minority numbering around 88,000, consisting mainly of Indians engaged in retail trade. The 9,000 Europeans are mostly British personnel employed by the government, Christian missionaries, and commercial people.

The African population is made up of Bantu, Nilotic, Sudanic, and Nilo-Hamitic peoples, divided into numerous tribal groups which vary in size, social system, and language. The most numerous are the Baganda, a Bantu group, who comprise over 17 percent of the population. The Baganda have a long tradition of self-rule in their highly developed kingdom of Buganda, with an hereditary king called the kabaka and a representative assembly. The Buganda kingdom is the wealthiest province in the country and was the first to be contacted by Europeans. The Nilotic tribes of the north have more fragmented and egalitarian social systems.

There are half a dozen major African languages, but Luganda, the dialect of the Buganda kingdom, is spoken fairly widely; so is Swahili, the East African lingua franca. English is the official language. Missionary activities account for a significant part of Uganda's modern history. About half of the country's Africans are Christian--some adhering to the Roman Catholic Church, others to various Protestant denominations.

MODERN HISTORY: The British explorers Speke and Grant were the first Europeans to visit this territory, entering from the south in 1862. In the 1870's Stanley became the first European to travel around Lake Victoria, negotiating a compact with the King of Buganda which opened the way for Christian missionaries. The missionaries and the Imperial East African (trading) Company thereafter were the chief elements in opening up this remote territory. The British government established a protectorate over Buganda in 1894. The rest of present-day Uganda was added to this protectorate in 1900.

GOVERNMENT: Uganda attained nationwide self-government in March 1962 and became an independent state on October 9, 1962. It is a sovereign member of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The country embarked on independence with a parliamentary form of government. The prime minister, Dr. Milton Obote, leader of the Uganda Peoples Congress (UPC), served as chief executive and was responsible to the unicameral National Assembly. Of the 91 seats in the Assembly, 21 were reserved for the Buganda kingdom. Under the 1962 constitution, Buganda had a special federal relationship to the central government and retained a high degree of autonomy in political and economic affairs.

When the constitution was amended in 1963 to provide for a president as chief of state, Sir Edward Mutesa II, the kabaka of Buganda, was elected president of Uganda. The Democratic Party served as the opposition party.

On February 26, 1966, Obote suspended the constitution and took over the functions of president as well as prime minister. Army troops razed the palace of the kabaka, forced him to leave the country, and brought Buganda under central control. The National Assembly, sitting as a Constituent Assembly, declared Uganda a republic in June 1967. Buganda was divided, and all kings and kingdoms abolished. Executive powers were vested in the president of the republic, who was head of state and government and commander-in-chief of the armed forces. In the National Assembly the UPC holds 80 of the 89 seats. The Democratic party remains as the only opposition party.

ECONOMY: Uganda has an African-operated economy of farming and cattle raising. Cotton and coffee are the leading exports. Declining prices for these two commodities in recent years have caused economic difficulties despite increased production. Copper, from the Kilembe mine opened in 1956, is Uganda's most valuable mineral export. In 1969 Japan agreed to buy the total Uganda copper output. The opening in 1954 of Owen Falls Dam, one of the greatest hydroelectric schemes in East Africa, made possible the export of electricity to Kenya and the Congo and offers a basis for further industrial expansion. Rural cooperative societies are well established in Uganda; over 1,000 have been organized to market agricultural commodities.

In 1966-67 uninhabited areas in western Uganda that had been infested with tsetse flies--carriers of sleeping sickness--were transformed into cattle ranches because of the eradication of the tsetse with the aid of a U. S. loan.

EDUCATION: Education for Africans, Asians, and Europeans follows the 6-2-4 pattern and is under the supervision of government education authorities. Between 1955 and 1965 primary school enrollment doubled, while secondary schools had a five-fold increase. Interracial and nondenominational schools are one of Uganda's principal aims.

Currently the main emphasis is on expanding secondary and higher education, including facilities for training more local teachers and technicians. Makerere University College near Kampala has been a center of higher education for students from Uganda and other territories since the 1950's.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: October 9, Independence Day.

LOCATION AND SIZE: Upper Volta is a landlocked country in the western bulge of Africa. It lies 500 miles inland from the Gulf of Guinea and more than 1,000 miles from the Atlantic Ocean at Dakar. Upper Volta is bordered by six different states--Mali, Niger, Dahomey, Togo, Ghana, and Ivory Coast--and, with its 105,811 square miles of territory, is nearly as large as Arizona.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of the country is a large plateau, inclining slightly toward the south and notched by the valleys of three rivers--the Black, White, and Red Voltas--which are alternately dry or in flood. In general, the land is dry and poor. The climate is markedly seasonal--warm and dry in winter months from November to March, hot and dry from March to May, and hot and wet the remainder of the year. Rainfall varies from about 40 inches in the south to less than 10 inches in the extreme north and northeast.

CITIES: Ouagadougou, the capital and principal city, has a population of 100,000, including 3,000 non-Africans. Bobo-Dioulasso, a city of 55,000 people, is a commercial center on the trade route between Ivory Coast and Mali.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Most of the 5.2 million population is concentrated in the center and south of the country, where urban areas sometimes have over 125 inhabitants per square mile. Due to the scarcity of productive land, thousands of Upper Voltans migrate annually to Ivory Coast and Ghana for seasonal agricultural work.

The two main groupings among the country's diverse African population are the Voltaic people (consisting of the Mossi, Gourounsi, Bobo, and Lobi) and the Mandé people (consisting of the Samo, Tougan-Marka, Dioula, and Boussance). Nearly half the population are Mossi, descendants of the medieval Moro Naba empire. They occupy the center of the country, are predominantly farmers, and follow the feudalistic traditions of their emperor, the Moro Naba, who still holds court in Ouagadougou. The Bobo, numbering about 275,000, live in rural villages of the west. The other Voltaic groups are considerably smaller. The various Mandé people, totaling about 230,000, have settled among the Voltaics but have preserved their own customs and characteristics. A few minority groups are related to people of neighboring countries.

HISTORY: Up to the end of the nineteenth century, the history of Upper Volta is that of the Mossi Empire. Because of their unity and fierceness in battle, the Mossi successfully resisted waves of Moslem invaders and remained an island of animist belief surrounded by Islam. Elements of the main tribe broke away in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, but the original nucleus of the empire, centering on Ouagadougou, persisted as an independent state until 1896, when it became a French protectorate.

After World War I this protectorate was united with other regions into a French colonial territory called Upper Volta. In 1932 the territory of Upper Volta was divided among the neighboring French colonies of Soudan, Niger, and Ivory Coast. Reunification of Upper Volta as a territorial unit, long desired by the Mossi chiefs, was effected by the French in 1947. At the end of 1958 Upper Volta became an autonomous republic in the new French Community. On August 5, 1960, it achieved independence. Maurice Yameogo, a Mossi of nonaristocratic lineage, served as its first president, from 1959 to 1966.

GOVERNMENT: Under its 1960 constitution, Upper Volta had a presidential system of government, with executive power vested in the president of the republic and legislative authority vested in a unicameral National Assembly. President Maurice Yameogo and his Voltaic Democratic Union, the country's only political party, held power until January 3, 1966, when Colonel Sangoulé Lamizana, army chief of staff, assumed the powers of head of state. He suspended the constitution, dissolved the National Assembly, and appointed a provisional cabinet of military and civilian ministers. In December 1966 Colonel Lamizana announced that he would exercise both executive and legislative powers and rule by decrees for four years. Steps toward a return to civilian rule will begin early in 1970.

ECONOMY: More than 90 percent of the people are engaged in subsistence agriculture. Aridity of the soil seriously hampers agricultural development. Principal crops are cotton, rice, peanuts, and shea butter (an edible vegetable fat). The peanuts and cotton are exported mainly to France. The principal wealth is livestock--more than 1.5 million head of cattle and 2.5 million sheep and goats. Export of animals on the hoof represents in value more than half the country's total exports, mainly to the Ivory Coast and Ghana. Another significant export is dried fish. Known mineral resources are limited to some gold, bauxite, and manganese deposits. The Abidjan-Niger Railroad, completed in 1954, connects Ouagadougou with the port of Abidjan, Ivory Coast, 712 miles away.

EDUCATION: The French system of education is followed and the language of instruction is French. A 10-year educational plan, launched in 1960, hopes to increase the percentage of children attending school to 80 percent of the boys and 20 percent of the girls. Advanced students attend the University of Dakar or French universities. A rural education program for young people aged 12 to 16 provides a three-year course in reading, writing, arithmetic, agricultural and pastoral skills. In October 1969 all 81 Catholic primary schools were turned over to the government; 12, 500 of the country's 100, 000 pupils were involved in the changeover.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: Republic Day, December 11.

ZAMBIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Zambia, formerly known as Northern Rhodesia, lies in south-central Africa. A landlocked country with a total area of 290,000 square miles, Zambia is somewhat larger than Texas. It is bordered on the north by the Congo Democratic Republic; on the east by Tanzania and Malawi; on the south by Mozambique, Rhodesia, and South West Africa; and on the west by Angola.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Zambia is high plateau between 3,000 and 4,000 feet above sea level. The Copperbelt, containing the second largest copper deposits in the world, lies in the north-central region, adjoining the Katanga fields of the Congo Democratic Republic. Zambia has many rivers, most of them flowing south into the Zambezi basin. The Zambezi River itself rises in the northwest tip of the country and curves down along the Rhodesian border on its way to the Indian Ocean. Here, in the south, are the famous Victoria Falls of the Zambezi. At Kariba Gorge, the river has been dammed and a power station has been constructed (on the Rhodesian bank) to generate electricity for a vast area. Because of the generally high altitude, most of Zambia has a pleasant, subtropical climate. The principal rainy season lasts from mid-November until April.

CITIES: Lusaka, the capital, has a population of 138,000. Most urban dwellers, however, are concentrated in half a dozen towns of the Copperbelt, which have a combined population of about 300,000 Africans and 50,000 Europeans. Two of the leading Copperbelt towns are Kitwe and Ndola.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Zambia has a population of about 3.9 million, most of whom are African. The non-African minorities consist of 65,000 Europeans (whites) and about 10,000 other ethnic groups. The Europeans, largely of British or South African birth, are concentrated in the Copperbelt, where they operate the mining industry. The Africans of Zambia are divided into numerous tribal groups, the largest of which are the Bemba, the Lozi, the Tonga, and the Chewa. Various Bantu languages and dialects are spoken, and Bemba has become a lingua franca in the Copperbelt. English is spoken by educated Africans as well as the Europeans. Most of the Africans still live in rural, tribal areas, but an increasing number are living in urban areas where they are workers, merchants, professional men, and government officials. A substantial proportion are Christian.

MODERN HISTORY: The explorations of David Livingstone in the mid-nineteenth century attracted European attention to this region of Africa. Cecil Rhodes spearheaded British commercial and political penetration in the last decade of the nineteenth century. His British South Africa Company administered the territories of both Southern and Northern Rhodesia for over 30 years. In 1923, Britain officially annexed Southern Rhodesia as a colony and granted local self-government to its white settlers. In 1924, Northern Rhodesia was placed under the administration of the British Colonial Office as a protectorate. Major development of the Copperbelt began in the late 1920's and brought more European settlers into the protectorate.

Although federation of the two Rhodesias and Nyasaland (1953-63) proved politically untenable, it strengthened economic links among them and permitted Northern Rhodesia's favorable trade balance to be shared for development purposes. The Federation became embroiled in increasing political controversy as the Africans demanded greater participation in government and the European settlers expressed reluctance to yield political supremacy to the Africans. In December 1963 the Federation was dissolved. New constitutional arrangements gave Northern Rhodesia a pre-independence government under African control. Thus, when Northern Rhodesia became the independent state of Zambia on October 24, 1964, it no longer had to help finance development of manufacturing in Southern Rhodesia, but it still depended on the latter for 40 percent of its imports, for a railroad link to an ocean port, and for coal and electricity to run its copper industry. This situation led to serious problems for the new Zambian republic when the Southern Rhodesian government in November 1965 defied Britain and proclaimed Rhodesian independence. Zambia is a member of the British Commonwealth.

GOVERNMENT: Under the 1964 constitution, Zambia has a presidential system of government. The president serves as chief executive, is commander-in-chief of the armed forces, and may veto legislation passed by the Legislative Assembly.

Zambia's first president, Kenneth Kaunda, was chosen by the Legislative Assembly in 1964. In December 1968 President Kaunda was reelected directly by the people for another term. The Assembly was expanded to 110 seats. The United National Independence Party led by President Kaunda is the only party.

ECONOMY: The copper industry is the most highly developed sector of the country's economy. Copper production amounts to over 700, 000 tons a year, placing Zambia third among the world's producers. The copper mining and refining complex generates a large part of the money income of the local population, yields important revenues for the government, and earns the major part of the country's foreign exchange. In August 1969 Zambia announced plans to nationalize the copper industry by taking a 51 percent interest in the two dominant foreign firms.

Commercial agricultural development is confined largely to European farms along the railroad connecting the Copperbelt with Rhodesia. The bulk of the country's Africans are still dependent on subsistence agriculture. Their principal food crops are corn, cassava, millet, and peanuts.

Strong copper exports, at favorable world market prices, enabled Zambia to embark on independence with a favorable balance of trade. Since the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland has been dissolved, the surplus from trade is available exclusively for Zambian development. There are plans for extending transportation facilities as well as improving African agriculture.

EDUCATION: One of the aims of Zambian education is to Africanize the management and technical positions held by Europeans in the copper industry, without disrupting the lifeblood of the economy. Between 1964 and 1968 primary school enrollment expanded 61 percent; secondary school enrollment, 246 percent. The University of Zambia, opened in 1965, had a student body of 560 within two years. Of the country's 13, 500-member teaching force, about 5, 000 are Europeans working in secondary and technical education. This rapid expansion creates tensions, but the government is fully committed to achieving its objectives in an orderly way.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: October 24, Independence Day.

LATIN AMERICA

Our neighbors to the south--the 24 republics of Latin America--have a rich and varied cultural heritage. America south as well as north of the Rio Grande was discovered, colonized, and made a part of Western culture by European powers and was successful (with a few exceptions) in securing independence during the revolutionary era of George Washington and Simón Bolívar. America south of the Rio Grande, however, differs from the United States in carrying over from pre-Columbian times an Indian population whose cultural influence has intermingled with that of the European. Especially along the mountainous spine from Mexico to Bolivia, various Indian peoples, including remnants of the great Aztec and Inca civilizations, have remained an enduring portion of the total cultural pattern. Moreover, Latin America, as its name implies, was colonized primarily by the Spanish and Portuguese portion of Europe. This gave the area a Catholic religious tradition, an agricultural way of life with a land-owning aristocracy, and an influential military stratum. Latin America, like North America, also has another important racial strand--its people of African descent.

With its various cultural and racial elements, its extensive and varied terrain, and its many political divisions, Latin America today presents a picture of much diversity. Some areas are largely European in population and culture; others are largely Indian at the rural level with a small upper class derived from Spain and a large group of racially mixed mestizos in between. Greater Brazil is a "melting pot" of many racial ingredients. And the peoples of the Caribbean area are partly Spanish, partly Negro, and partly of heterogeneous background.

In area, Latin America is two-and-one-half times the size of the continental United States. It has some 274 million people and the population is growing at a rapid rate. The pace of social, economic, and political change in Latin America also has vastly accelerated over the past 25 years. The trend toward urbanization and industrialization has proceeded rapidly in the larger countries--such as Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina--but considering Latin America as a whole the economic picture has changed into one that is both agricultural and industrial. Along with economic change, new urban-oriented groups have emerged to challenge and in some cases supplant traditional élites, to exert pressures for effective political democracy, and to raise demands for greater national self-assertion.

The growth of nationalism has been expressed in several forms--in rejection of U.S. interference in the internal affairs of Latin American nations, in protest against what is considered excessive influence of U.S. economic interests in Latin American states, in growing efforts toward diversification of Latin American economies, and in steps toward expansion of Latin American trade with Western Europe and the Soviet bloc. Nationalism is also evidenced in the tendency of some Latin American leaders to favor a neutralist position in international affairs. In Cuba, a combination of radical nationalism and communism has led to complete alignment with the Communist bloc. Because of its pro-Soviet orientation, Cuba was expelled from the activities of the 23-member Organization of American States in February 1962.

Since most Latin American countries still depend on exports of one or two agricultural or mineral products to earn the foreign exchange necessary for industrial growth, they are confronted with severe difficulties whenever prices for their basic commodities decline and whenever the U.S. imposes or threatens to impose quota limits on the import of such commodities. Development problems are further complicated by the "fragmented" nature of the Latin American economies, resulting from the area's division into so many different states. There has been relatively little country-to-country trade in Latin America because the major products of all the countries are raw materials. However, the growth of manufacturing after World War II led to the formation of the Latin American Free Trade Association in 1960. The 11 members of LAFTA (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela) agreed to end by 1973 most of the trade restrictions among them. In December 1960 Central American countries formed an organization similar to LAFTA. This five-member association (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua) is officially named the Central American Economic Integration--but is usually referred to as the Central American Common Market.

Latin American technological development since World War II has been assisted by the technical cooperation programs of the U.S. government, the Organization of American States, and the United Nations. Financial assistance also has been rendered through loans from the U.S. Export-Import Bank and the World Bank. Since 1961, U.S. government assistance for Latin American development has greatly increased through the Alliance for Progress, which links the United States and 19 Latin American republics in a cooperative program to speed economic growth and advance social reform in Latin America. It was formally launched in August 1961 at the Punta del Este Conference in Uruguay. Cuba did not sign the Charter of Punta del Este and is not a member of the Alliance for Progress.

The Alliance program promises U.S. financial and technical assistance for long-range plans of economic development formulated by the Latin American countries themselves. It also promises U.S. support for common market arrangements and U.S. cooperation in efforts to find a solution for commodity price fluctuations. In addition to direct economic and technical assistance from the U.S. government, the Alliance program encourages development assistance for Latin America from the World Bank, the Latin American Development Bank, the UN technical assistance program, and other international sources, including private investment. It has been estimated that the 19 Latin American countries may require a total of $20 billion in external assistance between 1961-70, if they are to make significant progress toward the economic and social goals of the Alliance for Progress.

ARGENTINA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated on the southeastern coast of South America, Argentina is bordered by Bolivia and Paraguay on the north; Brazil, Uruguay, and the Atlantic Ocean on the east; Chile on the west and to the south. With a total land area of more than one million square miles, Argentina is four times the size of Texas and the second largest country in South America (after Brazil). Over 23 million people live in Argentina, making it the second most populous of the 20 Latin American republics (after Brazil).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The land of Argentina is for the most part a large plain, rising from the Atlantic to the towering Andes in the west, along the Chilean border. The northeast region includes the swampy Chaco and the Argentine "Mesopotamia" with the great rivers of the Plata system. The central region, comprising about one-fourth of the country's area, consists of rolling pampas, famous for wheat and cattle, and supporting most of the Argentine people. Patagonia to the south is mainly a tableland region, known for sheep raising and wool production. Of spectacular beauty are the Iguassú Falls, larger than Niagara, on the Argentine-Brazilian border, and the many lakes of the southwest. In western Argentina, Mt. Aconcagua rises up to about 23, 035 feet, the highest peak in the Western Hemisphere. Argentina's climate is generally temperate, though hot in the subtropical Chaco and quite cold in the subantarctic region of southernmost Patagonia. Seasons are opposite to those in the U. S.

CITIES: Buenos Aires, the capital, has a population of over 7 million living in the city proper and suburbs. With skyscrapers similar to those of New York and Chicago, this cosmopolitan city is the center of the nation's political, cultural, industrial, and commercial life. Beautiful avenues, parks, and modern buildings are prominent. Other major Argentine cities are Rosario, population around 672, 000, the second largest industrial, commercial, and educational center, with an important port for regional exports; Cordoba, population around 589, 000, an inland center of an important agricultural and stock-raising region; La Plata, population over 330, 000, a "model city," center of the meat packing industry with an important harbor for cereal and meat exports to Europe. About 68 percent of Argentina's people live in towns and cities.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The country's people are overwhelmingly European in origin (mainly of Spanish and Italian descent). Indian and mestizo (racially mixed) groups amount to less than 3 percent of the population. Spanish is the official language. The Roman Catholic Church is supported by the state, but there is complete religious liberty.

GOVERNMENT: Argentina is a republic with 22 provinces, a federal district (Buenos Aires), and a national territory (Tierra del Fuego). Its constitution provides for an elected president, a bicameral Congress, and a Supreme Court. In June 1966 the elected constitutional government headed by President Arturo Illia was overthrown by leaders of the armed forces. President Illia was removed from office, members of the Supreme Court were deposed, the Congress and all political parties were dissolved. A provisional military government was established under General Juan Carlos Onganía.

ECONOMY: Industry, manufacturing, and oil production are the most important economic activities in Argentina today, but livestock and agricultural products (particularly meat and wheat) continue to be the most important exports and the major source of foreign exchange. Many materials for industry must be imported, including machines, vehicles, iron and nonferrous metals, petroleum by-products, chemicals and pharmaceuticals.

EDUCATION: The country's school system developed under the guidance of the great nineteenth-century Argentine educator and president, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento. Argentina today has one of the highest literacy rates in Latin America, nearly 90 percent. Schooling is compulsory and free between the ages of 6 and 14. Secondary and higher education also is free. There are eight national universities and several Catholic ones.

FOOD: Meat occupies a prominent place in the Argentine diet. Among the favorites are meat pies, called empanadas; meat slowly barbecued in its hide; steak and sausage broiled over a low fire; roasted lamb; baked stuffed meat. Meat dishes are served with salad and various vegetables familiar in the U.S. Argentine wine is famous for its quality.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: May 25--celebrates the "revolution" of 1810, when the country took its first step toward independence from Spain. July 9--celebrates formal proclamation of national independence by the Congress of Tucuman in 1816. The leader of the liberation campaign, General José de San Martin, is the national hero of Argentina.

BARBADOS

LOCATION AND SIZE: The easternmost West Indian island, Barbados lies about 250 miles northeast of Venezuela. It covers an area of 166 square miles--about the size of San Antonio, Texas.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Most of Barbados is flat, but a high, rugged region lies in the middle of the northeast coast. The land descends from the northeast coastal region across an upland plateau to a lowland plateau. The lowland plateau stretches to the coast all around the rest of the island. Fine sandy beaches stretch along the west and southwest coasts. Mt. Hillaby (1, 115 feet) is the highest point.

Almost all the island is covered with coral rock; 85 percent of the land is arable. Barbados has little natural plant life, but some evergreen trees grow in the northeast. The name Barbados (bearded) was believed given it by Portuguese or Spanish sailors, who were referring to bearded fig trees.

Temperatures range from 70 degrees to 87 degrees; hurricanes occasionally cause extensive damage on the island.

CITIES: Bridgetown, the capital and largest city (population 11, 452), is the business and tourist center and the chief port. Greater Bridgetown has a population of about 94, 000.

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: About 80 percent of the estimated 252, 000 population are descendants of slaves brought to Barbados from Africa between 1636 and 1834, when slavery was abolished. Over 15 percent of the people are of mixed African and British ancestry. About 4 percent are European descent--chiefly British.

One fourth of the workers farm or work on sugar plantations; another fourth work in the tourist trade and other businesses that provide services. The way of life is somewhat similar to that of England: Traffic moves on the left, cricket is the most popular sport, and Bridgetown's harbor police wear uniforms that date from Lord Nelson's era.

The Church of England is the largest church; others include the Roman Catholic, Methodist, and Moravian. All of the people speak English.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Scholars believe that Arawak Indians from South America were the first settlers. Carib Indians probably drove out the Arawak in the sixteenth century. Englishmen reached Barbados in 1625; the first permanent English settlement was founded in 1627. From 1629 to 1652 several English families fought for control of the island. The British Parliament sent an expedition to gain control of the island in 1652.

In the late 1870's Barbados opposed the British government's plans to form a federation of British islands in the West Indies; but Barbados joined the West Indies Federation when it was formed in 1958. Grantley Adams, a Barbadian, was the federation's prime minister. The federation dissolved in 1962 when Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago left it and became independent. Independence was granted on November 30, 1966.

GOVERNMENT: Barbados has a long history of constitutional development. Its House of Assembly, in continuous session since 1639, is the third oldest legislative body in the Western Hemisphere, preceded only by Bermuda and the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1619.

Although a governor-general represents the British Crown as head of state, the prime minister and the cabinet actually govern the country. The leader of the political party with the most members in the House of Assembly serves as prime minister. Parliament consists of the Senate and House of Assembly. The governor-general appoints the 21 senators, 12 of them on the advice of the prime minister. The people elect the 24 members of the House of Assembly. Members of Parliament serve for a maximum of five years.

Locally, Barbados is divided into two district councils and the Bridgetown City Council. For electoral purposes, Barbados is divided into 11 parishes and the city of Bridgetown.

ECONOMY: The soil and climate are ideal for raising sugar, which was introduced about 1640 and has been the mainstay of the economy ever since. Sugar and its by-products (rum and molasses) account for more than 80 percent of Barbados's exports. About 70 percent of the farmland is used for growing sugar.

Sugar processing is the chief manufacturing industry. Factories also produce edible oils, lard, margarine, rum, and soap. Barbados trades mainly with Great Britain, the United States, and Canada. It exports sugar, rum, and molasses. Barbados imports food and manufactured goods.

Tourism is Barbados's second most important industry.

EDUCATION: Children must attend school until they are 14 years of age. Primary school and vocational secondary schools are free. A branch of the University of the West Indies is located at Bridgetown.

Barbados has one of the highest literacy rates in the world--97 percent.

FOOD: The most popular foods include flying fish, okra, pork, rice, and yams.

NATIONAL HISTORY: November 30, Independence Day.

BOLIVIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A landlocked South American country, Bolivia is surrounded by Peru, Brazil, Paraguay, Argentina, and Chile. Bolivia's area is estimated at 420,000 square miles, roughly one and a half times the size of Texas.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Bolivia is divided into sharply contrasting regions. In the western part of the country is a great plateau, the altiplano, lying between two ranges of the Andes and averaging 12,000 feet in elevation. Roughly 85 miles wide and 500 miles long, the altiplano supports 75 percent of all Bolivia's people and contains the largest city, La Paz, as well as the tin mining centers of Potosi and Oruro. The weather is cool and dry most of the year in the altiplano, the average temperature being about 50 degrees. Among the eastern Andes are fertile valleys and mountain slopes, which account for about two-fifths of the country's cultivated land and enjoy mild temperate weather throughout the year. Further east are the tropical lowland plains of the Amazonia-Chaco, which make up nearly 70 percent of Bolivia's territory but are largely undeveloped and sparsely populated. The largest lake in South America, Lake Titicaca, lies on the Peruvian-Bolivian border at an altitude of 12,500 feet. It is the highest lake in the world with regular steamboat service, and it is the site of prehistoric ruins presumed to represent the Tiahuanco civilization, the earliest known in the Western hemisphere.

CAPITAL: Sucre, a city of 58,000 people, is Bolivia's legal capital, with the Supreme Court holding its sessions there. The actual functioning seat of Bolivia's government, however, is La Paz, a city of 400,000 people, the center of Bolivian politics, cultural life, industry, and commerce.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The country's 3.8 million inhabitants are heterogeneous. About 55 percent are Aymara and Quechua Indians, living in the altiplano; about 35 percent are mestizo of mixed Spanish and Indian blood; the rest are white. Spanish is the official language, though most of the Indians speak Aymara or Quechua (the Inca tongue). The recognized religion is Roman Catholicism, but there is freedom for other forms of worship.

GOVERNMENT: Bolivia--named after Simón Bolívar--is a republic with a president as chief executive and a bicameral Congress composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The country's political history has been marked by numerous revolutions and military coups. The National Revolutionary Movement (MNR) assumed power in April 1952 and initiated a program of economic and social reform. It held power until 1964, when President Victor Paz Estenssoro's reelection led to disorders, and a military junta took control. After a brief period of civilian rule, another military junta deposed President Luis Adolfo Siles Salinas in September 1969.

Communist guerillas, led by Ernesto Che Guevara, Castro's one-time righthand man, began operating in Bolivia in March 1967. Guevara was captured and executed by the Bolivian army October 9, 1967.

ECONOMY: Tin mining is the basis of the Bolivian economy. There is also some minor production of tungsten, antimony, copper, zinc, silver, and lead. Except for lubricants and aviation gasoline, Bolivia is self-sufficient in the production of petroleum. Three-fourths of the population works in agriculture, producing rice, potatoes, barley, sugarcane, coffee, fruit, and vegetables. During the 1950's, the MNR nationalized the tin mines and instituted a land reform program for the benefit of the Indians.

A group of Roman Catholic priests led Bolivian miners' successful attempts to negotiate better working conditions in 1967-68.

Bolivia's economy will receive a big boost from the recent discovery of large natural gas fields. To cash in on this, however, a gas pipeline will have to be built from Bolivia to Argentina.

EDUCATION: Although primary education is compulsory and free, the estimated illiteracy is high (58 percent). Since 1952 the government has undertaken an extensive program to build more primary and vocational schools, especially among the Indians. Bolivia has seven autonomous universities, among them the University of San Francisco Xavier at Sucre, founded 1624.

FOOD: Some typical national dishes are corn cakes, puchero (meat boiled with vegetables), and empanadas (meat pie spiced with red peppers). Much of the country enjoys an abundance of bananas, oranges, pineapples, grapefruit, and grapes.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 6, Independence Day.

BRAZIL

LOCATION AND SIZE: Brazil, largest nation of South America in area and population, lies in the east central portion of the continent. It has a coastline of nearly 4,603 miles on the Atlantic; its territory extends about 2,700 miles from north to south and a similar distance from east to west. Brazil's neighbors are Colombia, Venezuela, Guyana, Surinam, and French Guiana on the north; Peru and Bolivia on the west; Uruguay, Paraguay, and Argentina on the south.

Covering an area of over 3,286,000 square miles, Brazil is as large as the continental United States plus half of Alaska. The country has a rapidly growing population, estimated at over 85.6 million in 1967.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: There are three general regions in Brazil: the tropical, heavily forested Amazon Basin in the north and northwest; the high northeastern scrubland and desert; the central uplands and mountainous coastal belt. Brazil has the most extensive navigable river system in the world. The Amazon River alone is navigable for about 1,900 miles across Brazil. Most of the country lies in the torrid zone, but altitude, winds, and rainfall produce variety in climate. In tropical and subtropical regions, the year is divided into dry and wet seasons. In the central and southern areas, changes of temperature are more pronounced.

CITIES: Brasilia (population estimated at 200,000) is located on a plateau near the geographic center of the country, some 600 miles from Rio de Janeiro. It was inaugurated as the new capital on April 21, 1960, when its construction was only partially completed. Rio de Janeiro, the previous and long-time capital of Brazil, continues in importance as one of the largest cities in South America (population 4 million) and serves as the country's commercial, political, and cultural center. It also serves as the capital of the new Brazilian state of Guanabara. Rio is known the world over for its Copacabana shoreline, its attractive modern buildings, and its parks and boulevards, combined with unusual sugar-loaf-shaped mountains. Sao Paulo (population 4.5 million) is the country's largest city and the most important industrial center of South America, with impressive skyscrapers and factories. Recife (population 1.3 million) is Brazil's third largest city, a modern "Venice." Salvador (population 842,000) serves more than 100 mills and factories. Other major Brazilian cities are Porto Alegre, Bello Horizonte, Belem, and Santos.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: All races are represented in the population of Brazil--Caucasian, Indian, Negro, and Oriental. Centuries of intermarriage have produced a distinctive Brazilian people and virtually eliminated racial discrimination. The official language of the country is Portuguese. In religion Brazil is largely Roman Catholic, with separation of church and state a constitutional requirement.

GOVERNMENT: Brazil is a federal republic of 22 states, a federal district (Brasilia), and 4 territories. The federal constitution provides for an elected president, a vice-president, and a bicameral congress. Each state has its own legislature and governor.

A period of political and economic instability culminated in a military revolt which overthrew President Goulart's government on April 2, 1964. Congress then elected General Humberto Castelo Branco as provisional president. A new president--Arthur Costa e Silva--took office in March 1967 for a four-year term. A new constitution also went into effect at this time. When the president became incapacitated by a stroke in late 1969, a military junta assumed the reins of government.

ECONOMY: The Brazilian economy is predominantly agricultural, with coffee by far the most important source of national wealth. (About a third of the coffee consumed in the U.S. comes from Brazil.) Other crops are cotton, rice, beans, sugar, cacao, and tropical fruits. The land is rich in forest products. Livestock raising is important. Minerals are abundant--especially gold, iron, manganese, and precious stones. Industry is growing rapidly. The main branches are devoted to textiles, food processing, chemicals, motor vehicles, steel making, and building materials. Considerable poverty exists in the northeastern region around Recife, where many of the people are landless peasants.

EDUCATION: Primary education of four or five years is free and compulsory. Secondary education is available in all major centers of population. Many secondary students attend denominational or private schools. There are 32 official universities, including the large National University of Brazil in Rio de Janeiro. Mackenzie University, developed in Sao Paulo by persons from the U. S., is a unique institution offering a complete program from elementary school through the university. The literacy rate shows sharp regional variations, but the national average is estimated to be about 50 percent.

FOOD: The national dish is black beans and rice. In many regions of the coast, fish is served in soup or with rice and vegetables. Toward the south, people eat steak grilled on an open fire. Fruits are abundant, e. g., bananas, oranges, pineapples, and pears.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: September 7 is celebrated as Brazil's Independence Day, marking Dom Pedro's proclamation of independence from Portugal in 1822. November 15 is Republic Day, commemorating the army revolt of 1889 which overthrew the Brazilian empire and ushered in the republic.

CHILE

LOCATION AND SIZE: Chile occupies the southern half of the west coast of South America, with Peru on the north, the Andes Mountains on the east as a boundary with Bolivia and Argentina, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. Stretching 2,630 miles in a narrow ribbon of land from the subtropical north to the Antarctic south, Chile has a total area of about 286,400 square miles, slightly larger than Texas. The country's population is estimated to be over 8.9 million.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Chile's varied landscape includes high mountains, desert, a series of fertile inland valleys, pampas, and forest. The Atacama desert in the north is one of the driest regions on earth, where rain is virtually unknown. Middle Chile, containing the valley region, has all the characteristics of Mediterranean soil and climate and is the home of 90 percent of the country's people. Southern Chile is mountainous, is swept by high winds and heavy rains, and has thick forests. The climate ranges from subtropical in the north to extreme cold in the south. Much of it resembles that of the west coast of North America from California to Alaska. Seasons are opposite to those in the U.S.

CITIES: Santiago, the capital, has a population of 1.9 million and ranks as the fourth largest city on the southern continent. Its Alameda boulevard is lined with traditional homes, university buildings, theaters, and statues. Its famous National Library and National Archives are among the largest of South America. Valparaiso, population 276,000, is Chile's next largest city, an important Pacific port. Showplace of the nation is nearby Vina del Mar, with its Casino, Botanical Gardens, and Oceanographic Institute. Concepcion, on the banks of the Bio-Bio, was rebuilt after the earthquake of 1939 into the most modern city of the country but was severely damaged by another series of earthquakes in 1960.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: About two-thirds of Chile's inhabitants are mestizo, from the intermarriage of Spaniards and Indians. Spanish is the official language. Around 90 percent of the inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion, but there is separation of church and state and complete religious freedom.

GOVERNMENT: Chile is a republic with a centralized form of government. The president is elected by direct vote for six years. The legislature consists of a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate, also elected by direct vote. There is a Supreme Court, with appeals and lower courts. Political forces are fragmented, and the president must lead some form of coalition in order to govern.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the principal occupation and one of the major segments of the Chilean economy. The chief crops are wheat, rice, oats, rye, and barley. Mining industries account for about 65 percent of Chile's exports. Nitrate and copper are the leading products, followed by aluminum, manganese, sulphates, lead, zinc, and cobalt. Chile is the world's third largest copper producer (after the U.S. and Canada). Manufacturing industries produce mainly for domestic consumption.

In recent years the government has been trying to arrest rampant inflation and to establish the economic stability necessary for attraction of foreign and domestic capital. A tremendous burden was added to the country's economy, however, by the devastating earthquakes of May and June 1960, and full recovery will require many years (even though large amounts of special aid have been sent by other countries). In 1968 Chile had the worst drought in its history. More than 150,000 cattle died; lack of hydroelectric power caused industrial cutbacks.

EDUCATION: Primary education is compulsory and free. Secondary and higher professional education are likewise free in all state institutions and universities. There are important educational centers in Santiago, Valparaiso, Concepcion, and Valdivia and in most of the capitals of the various provinces and departments.

FOOD: Many spicy national dishes are prepared with fish, chicken, baked beans, squash, and corn. Quite popular are meat pies baked in the oven, also beefsteak topped with eggs and served with potatoes. Fruits are similar to those eaten in the U.S.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 18 is Chile's National Independence Day. September 19 is dedicated to the victories of the patriots in the wars of independence, 1810-18.

COLOMBIA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated in the northwestern corner of South America, Colombia adjoins the Isthmus of Panama, Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, and Ecuador. Covering an area of 440,000 square miles, Colombia is over one and a half times the size of Texas. The country's population was estimated at 18 million in 1967, making it the fourth most populous Latin American nation (after Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Colombia includes three divergent topographic areas: low coastal plains bordering the Caribbean and the Pacific; a mountainous west-central region crossed by three parallel ranges of the Andes; and the Oriente, or eastern region, consisting of plains in the north and jungle forests in the south. Many of Colombia's rivers are navigable.

A temperate climate prevails in the upland valleys and highlands of the mountainous interior. Medellin city, at an altitude of 5,000 feet, has an average temperature of 70 degrees. Bogota, at more than 8,000 feet, has an average temperature of only 55 degrees. At sea level the climate is hot and humid. Such a range of altitude, temperature, and rainfall produces an extraordinary variety and abundance of vegetation.

CITIES: Bogota, the capital (population 2.2 million), is the center of the nation's tradition, culture, and modern outlook. Founded in 1538, Bogota has preserved its old colonial architecture alongside of its very modern functional buildings. Medellin (population 976,000) is Colombia's second city in size and first in economic importance. It is also a center of intellectual, artistic, and industrial activities. Cali (population 815,000) is a fast-growing modern city. Barranquilla (population 594,000) is on the Caribbean coast. Cartagena (population 293,000) is also located on the Caribbean coast and has a modern port. Bucaramanga (population 285,000) is the center of the coffee and tobacco regions. About half of Colombia's population is rural.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The country's basic racial elements are Spanish and Indian, with very little mixture of Negro blood. Nearly 70 percent of the population are of mixed blood, 25 percent are white, 5 percent are Negro, and the rest Indian. About 98 percent of the people live in the western third of the country. Spanish is the official language. Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion, but other faiths are tolerated.

GOVERNMENT: Colombia is a republic with a popularly elected preseident and a National Congress (Senate and House of Representatives). The country long has had two major political parties, the Conservatives and the Liberals, which were engaged in civil conflict from 1948 to 1958. Following the overthrow of the dictator Rojas Pinilla in 1957, the constitution was amended to provide for a "national front" government in which all government offices would be divided equally between the Liberals and Conservatives until 1974, with the presidency alternating between them every four years during this period. In 1966 Liberal Party leader Carlos Lleras Restrepo, an economist, was elected to the presidency.

ECONOMY: Variations in climate give Colombia a diversified agricultural economy. Crops include coffee, bananas, corn, cotton, fibers, cacao, citrus fruits, rice, potatoes, wheat, beans, and tobacco. Coffee, however, represents over 30 percent of the total agricultural production and about 70 percent of the country's exports. Colombian emeralds are world famous. National production of petroleum is the second largest of South America, after Venezuela. Colombia was the first Latin American country to submit a long-range development program to the Alliance for Progress.

EDUCATION: Primary education in Colombia is free and legally compulsory, with the number of rural schools increasing. The literacy rate is estimated at about 60 percent. Secondary, normal, and vocational schools exist in most of the cities, while the National University of Bogota offers university degrees in many fields. Colombia has a proud record of scholarly achievement. Literary, scientific, and cultural movements centered in Bogota early won for the capital the title "Athens of America."

FOOD: Chicken with rice is the most popular national dish. Colombian tamales are prepared of cornmeal dough folded around a mixture of chopped meat, eggs, and onions, then wrapped in banana leaves and cooked in steam. A dish of mashed squash and fish is also popular.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: July 20 is Colombia's Independence Day, commemorating a popular revolt in Bogota in 1810. Independence from Spain finally was achieved in 1819, after a small army led by Bolívar defeated the Spanish at Boyaca on August 7--a date still celebrated as Boyaca Day.

COSTA RICA

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Central American republic lying between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean, Costa Rica is bordered on the north by Nicaragua and on the south and southeast by Panama. It is about one-half the size of the state of West Virginia.

GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS: The country is traversed by two volcanic ranges, separated by a central plateau from 3,000 to 5,000 feet in elevation. There are numerous rivers, the most important being the San Juan. Because of the mountain ranges, there are significant regional variations in climate. The weather is hot in the coastal lowlands, temperate in the highland plateau, and cool in the mountains, with alternating dry and rainy seasons.

CAPITAL: San Jose, population estimated around 178,000, is situated in a broad, fertile valley at an elevation of nearly 4,000 feet. Old colonial Spain and modern functional design are represented in streets, avenues, buildings, oxcarts, and cars. There is an elaborate opera house and a national museum with an outstanding collection of Indian lore.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Costa Rica is inhabited by about 1.7 million people (1968 estimate). The annual population growth rate of about 3.9 percent is one of the highest in the world, and the population has doubled since the late 1940's. More than 50 percent are under age 16; about one-fifth of the population (315,000 children) are attending primary school.

Costa Rica's people are mostly of European descent, about 80 percent of them being of Spanish origin. Most live in the highlands around the capital city and in the main provincial towns. Spanish is the official language. Roman Catholicism is the religion of the state, which contributes to its maintenance and controls the church. There is complete religious liberty.

Negroes make up 2 percent of the population; most are descended from Jamaican workers who emigrated to Costa Rica in the late nineteenth century.

GOVERNMENT: The Costa Rican republic is headed by a president elected by direct popular vote for a period of four years. The current chief of state, elected in February 1966, is José Joaquín Trejos. Legislative powers are vested in a unicameral Legislative Assembly. Women over 21 were enfranchised in 1949. Popular suffrage normally functions effectively.

ECONOMY: Costa Rica is mainly an agricultural country. The hot zone of coastal and river plains produces bananas, cacao, coconuts, sugarcane, gums, and various woods. The temperate zone of the highland plateau produces high-grade coffee, vegetables, cereals, and fruit. The cool zone of the mountains supports cattle for milk and meat production. Costa Rica has a variety of light industries processing agricultural products and manufacturing domestic goods. Coffee, bananas, and cacao are the chief exports; about one-half of the sugar crop also is exported.

The U.S. is Costa Rica's principal trading partner, and more than half of the foreign aid has come from the U.S.

EDUCATION: The country takes pride in having one of the finest systems of public education in the Americas. Primary education is compulsory and free for all children. The literacy rate (about 85 percent) is among the highest in Latin America. There are secondary schools in each of the country's seven provinces. The University of Costa Rica is an autonomous, state-supported institution.

FOOD: The olla, or kettle, is the most popular national dish, made of beef, potatoes, onions, corn, beans, and tomatoes; it is served as a soup or stew. Fresh tortillas are prepared for each meal. Rice appears in the meals of all families twice a day. Bananas are used as a vegetable, as a fruit, in soups, and in preserves. There are many tropical fruits, e.g., the sweet pineapple.

HOLIDAYS: September 15, the anniversary of Central American independence. April 11, anniversary of the battle of Rivas against Walker, in which the national hero, the drummer boy Santamaria, lost his life. May 1, the second battle of Rivas and capitulation of Walker.

CUBA

LOCATION: Largest island of the West Indies, Cuba lies at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico, only 90 miles from Key West, Florida. The Isle of Pines also is Cuban territory. The total land area of the country is slightly less than that of Pennsylvania.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: About three-fifths of Cuba is made up of flat or gently rolling land, covered with rich flora. The rest of the land is hilly or mountainous. There are three principal mountain ranges and several short rivers and valleys. Cuban weather is more semi-tropical than tropical. Breezes from the northeast in summer and from the southeast in winter moderate the temperature of the island. Rainfall is evenly distributed over the island.

CITIES: Havana, Cuba's capital and principal port, is a cosmopolitan and modern city famous for its beaches, hotels, national monuments, and a white capitol constructed of Cuban limestone. Greater Havana has over 1.5 million inhabitants. Santiago, in the mountainous province of Oriente, is a colorful and historical city with a population of at least 231,000. Camaguey in the livestock country and Cienfuegos, a distilling and manufacturing center, are other major cities. Around three-fifths of the country's people are urban dwellers.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Cuba has had two historic currents of immigration. One came from Spain, the other from Africa (slaves for the Spanish plantations). The present-day population (estimated at 7.9 million) reflects both these currents--73 percent of the inhabitants are white, 27 percent are mixed or colored, and hardly any traces of the original Indian inhabitants remain. Spanish is the official language of the country, and English is widely understood. Roman Catholicism is the predominant religion. The Castro regime is hostile to all religious practice, and it has considerably limited the independence of religious institutions.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Discovered by Christopher Columbus himself and governed by his son Diego, the island of Cuba was for many centuries under Spanish rule. On several occasions Cubans tried to free themselves from the bondage of Spain, but they did not succeed until the end of the nineteenth century when the U.S. came to their assistance in the Spanish-American War. After a period of U.S. military authority, control of the government was turned over to Cubans on May 20, 1902. This date has since been celebrated as Cuban Independence Day, marking the official beginning of the independent Republic of Cuba. Under the Platt Amendment, however, the U.S. retained a number of controls over Cuba's internal and external affairs, including the right to intervene to protect American interests. The U.S. abrogated this amendment in 1934, but retained its naval base at Guantanamo.

GOVERNMENT: After Cuba became a republic, rivalries and struggles for power prompted considerable political unrest and numerous revolutions. In 1952, Fulgencio Batista, long a Cuban "strong man," seized power in a coup d'etat and later was formally elected president. On January 1, 1959, Fidel Castro, leader of a two-year rebellion against the government, succeeded in ousting Batista from power. Castro later became the new dictator with an acquiescent president to assist him. His younger brother Raul Castro also assumed ministerial rank and took control of all Cuba's armed forces and police personnel, as well as the peasant and civilian militia.

Because of the wholesale taking over of property belonging to U.S. citizens and the continued harassment by Castro of the United States in public speeches and acts, the U.S. government severed diplomatic relations on January 3, 1961, and closed down its embassy in Havana, leaving the Swiss in charge of U.S. affairs. On April 17, 1961, an attempted invasion of the island by Cuban exiles with some aid from the U.S. government ended in complete failure.

Castro's government signed extensive trade and credit agreements with U.S.S.R. in 1960 and aligned itself politically with the Soviet bloc in 1960-61. Since then, Cuban armed forces have been trained and equipped by the Soviet Union. In October 1962 the presence of Soviet missile installations in Cuba was revealed by U.S. aerial photographs. The resulting crisis almost led to global war, but subsided when the U.S.S.R. agreed to withdraw its medium-range missiles.

Premier Castro's avowed goal is to transform Cuba into a "socialist state." Efforts are under way to create a single revolutionary political party of the Communist type. The Castro government has not permitted national elections; it issues legislation in the form of cabinet or executive agency decrees.

Almost 4,000 Cuban refugees per month now join relatives in the U.S. through a U.S. government-operated Cuba-Miami airlift which began on December 1, 1965. It is estimated that more than 500,000 Cubans have gone into exile, most of them to the U.S.

FOREIGN RELATIONS: Because of Cuba's subversive interventionism, especially in various other Latin American countries, and of its avowedly Communist government, Cuba has been excluded from the Organization of American States. The OAS has adopted a policy of political, economic, and diplomatic isolation of Cuba.

While Cuba has developed close military and economic ties with the U.S.S.R., the two countries have had strong disagreements on foreign policy. Cuba also has established close relationships with other Communist states, especially North Vietnam and North Korea. Cuba's friendship with Communist China has cooled.

ECONOMY: Cuba is the world's largest producer of cane sugar. In normal times sugar and sugar products comprise nearly 85 percent of the country's exports and account directly or indirectly for about two-thirds of the total national income. Tobacco production, livestock raising, and mining formerly were the next most important activities. Cuba's chief mineral products are nickel, chrome, copper, iron, and manganese. Manufacturing is of some importance for the domestic market.

The economic system prevailing in 1958 has been changed drastically under the Castro regime by reforms which have reorganized the land into state ownership of farms and cooperatives; by nationalization of mineral resources, business firms, banks, and industry; and by mass exodus of managerial and technical personnel. For five years the regime's policy stressed diversification of agriculture and rapid industrialization to reduce dependency on sugar. Economic difficulties caused a reversal of policy late in 1963. The new policy, announced by Castro in January 1964, concentrates on restoring and greatly expanding sugar production. The Soviet bloc has been supplying machinery, petroleum, basic foodstuffs, and enough raw materials to keep industry functioning; and Cuba recently has been trying to attract some non-Communist trading partners.

EDUCATION: The school system has been reorganized since 1959 to reflect the revolutionary changes in the state. Primary education is compulsory, and all schooling is free. Private schools were nationalized or closed in 1961, bringing all education under state control. Illiteracy in 1959 was estimated at 22 percent in the urban areas; 50 percent in rural areas. New programs for university degrees announced in 1962 include required study of Marxism-Leninism. Many teachers and university professors have left Castro's Cuba for the United States.

FOOD: Chicken with rice, spiced in various ways, is the most popular national dish. Beans are used in soups or with meats and vegetables in a stew. Cubans also like seafood. They eat many fruits, including avocados, mangoes, and pineapples.

HOLIDAYS: January 1, Day of Revolution (1959). May 20, Independence Day (1902).

THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Caribbean country near Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic occupies the eastern two-thirds of the island known historically as Hispaniola. The rest of the island is occupied by the Republic of Haiti. The Dominican Republic has about as much territory as New Hampshire and Vermont combined.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Four mountain ranges cross the country from east to west, with fertile valleys between them. Trujillo Peak, the highest elevation of the West Indies, rises over 10, 000 feet. Toward the north there is a region ideal for agriculture, especially sugarcane. Few of the rivers are navigable. The average annual temperature is about 77 degrees, rising to 90 along the coast. There is a summer rainy season and a winter dry season.

CITIES: Santo Domingo, the capital, situated on the river Ozama along the southern coast, has a population of over 564, 000. The capital was largely destroyed by an earthquake in 1930; it was rebuilt and called Ciudad Trujillo during the lifetime of Generalissimo Rafael L. Trujillo. The other major city is Santiago, population 180, 000, situated in the tobacco-producing region of the north. About 70 percent of the population is rural and agricultural, mainly small landholders.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: A prominent minority of the 3. 9 million population are whites of Spanish descent; the majority of the people are a mixture of European, African, and Indian stock. About 12 percent are Negroes, descended from African slaves. Spanish is the official language, but many citizens also speak French and English. Roman Catholicism is the state religion, but religious freedom is protected by law.

GOVERNMENT: General Rafael L. Trujillo, who directed the government and armed forces for 31 years, was assassinated on May 30, 1961. After his death, political parties became active again, and free elections were held in December 1962. Juan Bosch, a moderate socialist, was elected president, and his party won a majority in both houses of Congress.

The Bosch government lasted from February 1963 until September 1963, when it was overthrown by a military coup. A civilian triumvirate installed by military leaders was in turn overthrown on April 24, 1965. The 1965 uprising, started by a military faction, flared into civil war. The United States, concerned about potential Communist influence, sent intervention troops, and the Organization of American States later approved creation of an inter-American peace-keeping force. A compromise settlement among Dominican groups led to a presidential election in June 1966 and a return to constitutional government one month later, when the newly elected president, Joaquín Balagúer, took office. Troops of the Inter-American Peace Force were withdrawn in September 1966.

EDUCATION: Primary education is compulsory and free. Illiteracy is more than 50 percent. Secondary and vocational education is free but not compulsory. The University of Santo Domingo dates back to the sixteenth century.

ECONOMY: Primarily an agricultural country, the Dominican Republic produces for export, in order of importance, sugar, coffee, cacao, bauxite, bananas, and tobacco. Sugar is of leading importance, accounting for more than half of all exports. Rice, beans, corn, oranges, and pineapples are grown largely for domestic consumption. Stock raising is of increasing importance. Forests yield a heavy hardwood known as Dominican mahogany, which is used for fine furniture and cabinet work. Manufacturing enterprises are mostly in the agricultural processing field, producing such items as rum and cigars.

FOOD: Vegetables, meat, and fish are prominent in the national diet, usually served with beans and rice. Special dishes include dulce de leche (milk and sugar) and dulce de naranja (an orange jelly dessert). Dominican pineapples are especially delicious.

HOLIDAYS: January 26 is Duarte Day, honoring Juan Pablo Duarte, "father" of Dominican independence. February 27 is Independence Day, marking the date in 1844 when followers of Duarte seized power in the city of Santo Domingo and proclaimed Dominican independence from the rule of Haiti. Columbus Day, October 12, is of particular significance since Columbus landed on the coast of what is now the Dominican Republic during his first voyage to the New World and, together with his sons, founded the first European settlements there.

ECUADOR

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated on the northwest coast of South America, Ecuador is bordered on the north by Colombia, on the east and south by Peru, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Including the Galapagos Islands, Ecuador has an area of about 104,500 square miles, roughly the size of Colorado. It is the second smallest republic in South America, exceeding only Uruguay in size.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Of Ecuador's four geographic regions, the Costa, or coastal plain--about 120 miles wide--contains the country's richest agricultural areas. The Sierra, or highlands, lies between two parallel ranges of the Andes, with some of the greatest snow-capped volcanoes in South America. The Oriente, or upper Amazon basin, east of the Andes, is mainly relatively unexplored and uninhabited tropical jungle. The Archipelago de Colón, or Galapagos Islands, are located in the Pacific, some 600 miles off the coast.

In the coastal lowlands the hot and humid air is modified by the Humboldt Current from the Antarctic. In the highlands the climate varies with the altitude, from subtropical valleys to the frigid paramos, 16,000 feet high.

CITIES: Quito, the capital (population of about 450,000), is one of the most beautiful cities of the New World, only 10 miles south of the equator. Spread over the foothills of Mt. Pichincha, it is the political, cultural, and financial center of the country. Guayaquil, principal port and largest city of Ecuador (population 650,000), is situated in the coastal lowlands where one-third of the country's population is concentrated.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Ecuador's population of 5.5 million is a mosaic of races and cultures. Pure-blooded Indians comprise about 40 percent; mestizos, of mixed blood, around 40 percent; Negroes, 10 percent. The remaining 10 percent are chiefly of Spanish descent. Spanish is the official language, but the Indians speak Quechua and other languages. Roman Catholicism is the predominant religion. The constitution guarantees freedom of worship.

GOVERNMENT: Ecuador is a republic with 19 provinces and 1 national territory (the Galapagos Islands). There is constitutional provision for an elected president and a bicameral National Congress. Constitutional rule was suspended in July 1963, when a military junta deposed the president and dissolved the National Congress. The junta yielded control to a provisional civilian government in March 1966. On August 31, 1968, José María Velasco was inaugurated for a fifth presidential term, which will end in 1972.

ECONOMY: Primarily an agricultural country, Ecuador produces a variety of crops. In the coastal lowlands, bananas, coffee, cacao, and rice are grown for export; sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, and citrus fruits are raised largely for domestic consumption. In the Andean highlands, crops of wheat, corn, barley, beans, and potatoes are grown for home consumption. Bananas make up over half of Ecuador's exports, the country now being the world's largest supplier of this fruit. Ecuador is also the world's largest producer of balsa wood and a primary source of the toquilla palm fiber for Panama hats. Industry has begun to develop in recent years, mainly for the manufacture of consumer goods. In early 1968 there were 154 American firms, subsidiaries, and affiliates in Ecuador.

EDUCATION: Much effort has been made in the past decade to extend primary schooling in rural areas, but facilities are still too inadequate to accommodate the growing number of children. Agricultural and teacher-training schools have been established in many of the urban centers and towns of the interior. The Central University of Ecuador in Quito and the University of Guayaquil are the largest of the country's seven universities.

FOOD: Most national dishes are prepared with a base of corn. Very popular is a cake prepared with cheese and potatoes. Empanadas, a pie made with rice, corn, meat, cheese, and onions is enjoyed throughout the country. Fish is served in various ways. Fruits are abundant.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 10 is Independence Day, marking the day in 1809 when the first blow was struck for Ecuadoran independence from Spain. On this holiday, Ecuador's Congress convenes, and an annual exhibition of painting and sculpture is opened in Quito.

EL SALVADOR

LOCATION: Wedged between Guatemala and Honduras on the Pacific coast of Central America, El Salvador is the only Central American country without a Caribbean coastline. It is about the size of New Jersey and is the smallest of the mainland American Republics (about 8, 000 square miles).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The land is characterized by two mountain ranges, a volcanic range near the coast and another along the northern border. Between these two ranges are hills and a plateau averaging 2, 000 feet high. The soil has been enriched by lava from volcanoes. Waters of many rivers irrigate the fertile valleys, but only a few of the rivers are navigable. There are regional variations in climate. In the lowlands, the climate is distinctly tropical; in the plateau, only semitropical; on the mountain slopes, temperate.

CITIES: **San Salvador**, the capital (population of over 281, 000), lies at the foot of the San Salvador volcano. In the past, earthquakes destroyed various portions of the city. Now the capital is very modern with scarcely any colonial atmosphere. **Santa Ana**, population 72, 800, is the urban center of the western zone. It is located high in a fertile valley, practically surrounded by high mountains.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: El Salvador is the most densely populated (400 per square mile) of the Central American countries, with two-thirds of its people living in rural areas. Of the 3. 1 million population about 8 percent are either Indian or white; the rest are mestizo, a mixture of white and Indian. Spanish is the official language, spoken by virtually all elements of the population. Roman Catholicism is the dominant religion, but there is full freedom of worship.

In July 1969 El Salvador invaded neighboring Honduras because of its allegedly inhuman treatment of the 280, 000 Salvadorans living in Honduras. El Salvador also asked that Honduras modify a land-reform project that stipulates that only Honduran-born citizens can own land.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: A province of the Spanish Captaincy General of Guatemala in colonial times, El Salvador tried unsuccessfully to gain its freedom in 1811. Ten years later when Mexico formed an Empire to take in all the old provinces of the Captaincy General of Guatemala, El Salvador opposed the idea and requested admission to the United States. In 1823 it joined other Central American countries in forming the Central American Union. In 1841 El Salvador withdrew from the union and became an independent republic.

GOVERNMENT: The Republic of El Salvador has had a turbulent political history. Five presidents since 1931 have been military men. Lt. Col. Julio Adalberto Rivera was elected president in 1962, for a five-year term, under a new constitution. His popularly elected successor, Col. Fidel Sanchez, was inaugurated July 1, 1967.

ECONOMY: The country's economy is predominantly agricultural. Coffee is the principal crop and biggest export, El Salvador ranking as the third largest coffee producer in the Americas (surpassed only by Brazil and Colombia). Cotton is the second most important crop, followed by corn, beans, sugar, and rice. Since pre-Columbian times, every town has been famous for some type of handicraft such as pottery, articles of tortoise shell, woven cotton goods, rope, or sandals. The U. S. is El Salvador's principal trading partner.

EDUCATION: With less than half of the population literate, the government currently is engaged in a vigorous campaign to wipe out illiteracy. Secondary schools offer varied curriculums, and there are several teacher-training schools. The National University of San Salvador has about 1, 000 students.

FOOD: The majority of the people live on black beans (*frijoles*), corn cakes (*tortillas*), and fruit. City dwellers eat more meat. Fish is also popular in the areas near rivers and lakes.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 15, Independence Day, commemorates the day when Father Jose Matias Delgado, leader of a group of patriotic civilians and priests, declared the country independent. Although his efforts proved unsuccessful, other attempts followed until 1841, when the country finally became the Republic of El Salvador.

GUATEMALA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Lying southeast of Mexico, the republic of Guatemala is bordered on the east by British Honduras (Belize), the Caribbean Sea, and Honduras; on the southeast by El Salvador and on the south and southwest by the Pacific Ocean. Guatemala has a land area of slightly more than 42,000 square miles, about the size of Tennessee. It is the northernmost and most populous of the five Central American republics, with a high rate of annual population growth (3.1 percent).

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Two-thirds of Guatemala is mountainous and volcanic. A number of volcanoes are intermittently active. Earthquakes are frequent. About 60 percent of the country's total area is covered with rich forests, which are particularly dense in the Peten region of the northwest. Most of the people live on the slopes of the highlands or in the fertile well-watered lowlands along the Pacific coast.

In the coastal lowlands, hot and humid weather prevails. In the highlands, where the principal population centers are located, the climate is comfortable at all seasons; the nights are generally cool (even cold in winter). From November to May there is a dry season, and from May to November there is abundant rainfall.

CITIES: Guatemala City, the capital, has a population over 600,000 and is the principal urban center. It is the third capital city since Spanish times, and all three have been destroyed by earthquakes. The present capital, last destroyed in 1917-18, has been rebuilt with modern buildings, beautiful streets, and attractive parks. The previous capital, now called Antigua (Old), is a treasure house of Spanish colonial architecture, most of it in ruins, and is an important tourist center. Quetzaltenango, population 57,000, is the country's second city in size, as well as political and commercial importance. It is named after the beautiful Quetzal bird, Guatemala's national symbol.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Almost half of the total 4.7 million population (1967 estimate) are Indians, descendants of the Maya-Quiche, and culturally and economically unassimilated. However, the local color they afford and their handicrafts, especially textiles, contribute much to Guatemala's attraction for tourists. The rest of the population are largely ladinos, a mixture of Spanish and Indian. The relatively small fraction of whites includes many foreigners, among them numerous persons from the United States. Spanish is the official language of the republic, but the Indians use their own dialects and often do not speak Spanish. Roman Catholicism is the religion of the majority, but there is complete freedom of worship. Protestant groups are very active.

GOVERNMENT: A military regime headed by Col. Enrique Peralta Azurdia took control in March 1963, suspended the constitution, and banned political activity. In 1964 elections were held for a Constituent Assembly, which promulgated a new constitution. Restoration of constitutional government proceeded in 1966 with election of a National Congress and a civilian president, Julio Cesar Mendez Montenegro, who took office on July 1.

ECONOMY: Guatemala's economy is primarily agricultural. The leading exports are coffee (44 percent), cotton (19 percent), bananas, sugar, and beef. Maize, rice, beans, and wheat are raised for domestic consumption. Mineral resources are not yet exploited on a significant scale. There are some light industries manufacturing consumer goods, and a new impulse toward industrialization has been provided by creation of a Central American "common market." Leather and woven handicrafts figure in the tourist trade and are also exported.

The U.S. is Guatemala's chief trading partner.

EDUCATION: Although there are 4,000 primary schools with more than 250,000 students, over half the primary age children still are not attending school. An estimated 70 percent of the population is illiterate. On the secondary level, there are more than 1,000 teachers and approximately 20,500 students in general, vocational, and teacher-training schools. The University of San Carlos now centers in Guatemala City with a branch in Quetzaltenango, but it was originally founded in Antigua during the seventeenth century.

FOOD: Tamales in Guatemala are prepared with cornmeal dough, filled with meat and spices, and boiled in banana leaves or cornhusks. Black beans are a staple of diet, eaten all over the country in various styles. Fried yucca, a starch plant, and plantains take the place of potatoes.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 15, Independence Day, commemorates the bloodless revolution of 1821 that declared Central America independent from Spain. The five component republics (Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica) became one by one definitively independent in the years 1838-47. While the republics are strongly individual, they maintain close psychological, cultural, and economic ties.

CULTURAL NOTE: Guatemalans are justly proud of their Mayan antecedents. Their country was one of the main centers of Mayan culture and abounds in important archaeological ruins. The ruins at Tikal, in the Peten province, are now being excavated and restored in collaboration with the University of Pennsylvania.

FOREIGN RELATIONS: Citizens of Guatemala use the term Belize, not British Honduras. They believe that this neighboring area is temporarily and unjustly under British control. British Honduras is claimed by Guatemala on the grounds that it inherited Spanish sovereignty over this territory and that British claims, based on an 1859 treaty with Guatemala, are void.

GUYANA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Situated on the northern coast of South America, Guyana has a coastline of more than 200 miles along the Atlantic Ocean. It is bordered on the south and southwest by Brazil, on the northwest by Venezuela, and on the east by Surinam (Dutch Guiana). Guyana occupies an area of some 83, 000 square miles, slightly larger than that of Kansas.

Surinam and Guyana are currently engaged in a border dispute.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: About 90 percent of Guyana's people live along the coast in a narrow strip of flat and fertile land from 5 to 10 miles wide. Much of this strip is below sea level at high tide and must be protected by a complex system of dikes and drainage canals. Behind the coastal plain is a forested, hilly, plateau region with significant mineral reserves. The bulk of the hinterland, in the south and west, is composed of thickly forested mountain ranges separated by grassy savannas. The highest point is in the west, at Mt. Roraina, 8, 530 feet, where the frontiers of Venezuela, Brazil, and Guyana meet. Three large rivers water the country: the Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice. Guayana's tropical climate is moderated along the coast by northeast trade winds. Coastal temperatures range from 72 to 90 degrees; the coastal rainy seasons are from April to July and November to January.

CITIES: Georgetown, the capital and chief port, is the country's largest city, with a cosmopolitan population of about 160, 000. Roughly half of the urban population live inside the city and the other half live in outlying areas. New Amsterdam, on the southeast coast, has a population of some 15, 000 and a port that accommodates coastal and small ocean vessels. McKenzie, an inland town south of the capital, is a center for production of alumina--enriched bauxite ore.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Guyana is an Amerindian name, applied originally to the region of present-day Surinam, French Guiana, Guyana, and parts of Venezuela and Brazil. The coastline was charted by Spanish sailors in 1499. The first European settlements in the territory of present-day Guyana were established in the late sixteenth century by the Dutch, who withstood efforts by other European powers to capture the area until 1796 when the British gained effective control. In 1814 the territory was formally ceded to Britain; in 1831 the main settlements were united into the colony of British Guiana.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The colony acquired its multiracial population from three historic currents of immigration--early European settlers, West African slaves, and East Indian laborers imported to work on sugar plantations after the slaves were emancipated. Guyana's present estimated population of 680, 000 is about 48 percent East Indian, 33 percent African Negro, 12 percent mixed racial background, 4. 5 percent Amerindian, 2 percent white European, and less than 1 percent Chinese. English, the official language, is used in government, schools, press, and business. The principal religious communities are Hindu, Christian, and Moslem.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Universal adult suffrage was introduced in British Guiana in 1953, and subsequent advance toward self-government and independence took place under turbulent political conditions. The first three elections based on universal suffrage--1953, 1957, 1961--were won by the People's Progressive Party (PPP) under the leadership of Cheddi Jagan. The 1953 election results were suspended by Britain on charges of Communist subversion and an appointed government ruled until 1957, when the PPP resumed participation in government. Full internal self-government was granted in 1961.

Elections were held in December 1964 under a new system of proportional representation. People's National Congress leader Forbes Burnham became prime minister of the coalition government, and United Force leader Peter D'Aguiar became finance minister. This coalition government led Guyana to independence on May 26, 1966.

GOVERNMENT: Guyana's "independence constitution," negotiated with Britain late in 1965, provides for a unicameral legislative assembly of 53 members elected under the system of proportional representation. The prime minister heads the Council of Ministers and serves as chief executive. Guyana retains its membership in the British Commonwealth of Nations. A governor-general representing the Queen served as chief of state in 1966, but the constitution recognizes that Guyana may desire to become a republic with a president as titular head of state in the future.

Although the country's major political parties aspire to be multiracial, each still draws the bulk of its support from one major racial group. Cheddi Jagan, leader of the well-organized People's Progressive Party, is an East Indian who describes himself as a Marxian Socialist; his party gets the bulk of its support from the East Indian sugar workers and rice farmers. Prime Minister Burnham describes his PNC Party as Scandinavian-style Socialist and draws his main support from the African and mixed groups who are concentrated in urban areas. Peter D'Aguiar, who resigned as finance minister in September 1967, and is leader of the smaller United Force Party, is a businessman of Portuguese descent; his party draws support from the local business community (Portuguese, Chinese, Indian elements) and from the Amerindians.

ECONOMY: The economy of Guyana is based primarily on agriculture. Sugar and its by-products account for 34 percent of the country's exports; rice for 14 percent. Mining enterprise is of increasing importance. Bauxite and alumina now account for 36 percent of the country's total exports, and a sizable manganese operation began in 1960. There is also some production of gold and diamonds. The coalition government formed in December 1964 has been seeking to stimulate investment and restore business confidence. Assistance for economic development has come from the United States as well as Britain.

EDUCATION: Schooling is free and legally compulsory for children from the ages of 6 to 14. Government schools are increasing in number, but as recently as 1960 most of the country's schools were run by private groups with government financial aid. Shortage of trained teachers has been a major problem. A government teacher-training college was established in 1960, and a university was started in 1963.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: Independence Day, May 26.

HAITI

LOCATION AND SIZE: A Caribbean country approximately 50 miles east of Cuba, Haiti occupies the western third of the mountainous island that the Spaniards in colonial times called Hispaniola. The rest of the island constitutes the Dominican Republic. Haiti has a land area of 10,700 square miles, about the size of Maryland.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Mountains, highlands, and deep valleys make up about four-fifths of the country. Between the mountains are several large plains. There are many rivers, but only the Artibonite is navigable. In the southeast is a large lake, the Etang Saumâtre. Temperatures range from cool in the highlands to torrid in the seaports. In some places sea breezes temper the heat. Rainfall varies with altitude and is more abundant on the windward slopes.

CAPITAL: Port-Au-Prince, city of contrasts, is situated on the Gulf of Gonave. With a population of 265,000, it is Haiti's largest city and chief port. Outstanding buildings include the National Palace, the ancient Iron Market extending over two blocks and roofed with iron, and the Museum of Ethnology with a unique voodoo section.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Haiti has a population of approximately 4.5 million, which makes it one of the most densely populated nations in the world. Most of the population is Negro, but the better-educated and wealthier minority is mulatto, of mixed French and Negro ancestry. The 2,000 white residents are almost all foreigners engaged in commerce. Haiti is the only American republic that has French as its official language--a result of French colonial rule in the eighteenth century. English also is taught in the schools. Most of the population speak a Creole dialect derived from French and various African tongues. Roman Catholicism is the predominant religion, but many country folk practice voodoo, which expresses hope for the future through rituals, symbols, music, and dances with strong emotional appeal.

GOVERNMENT: The republic of Haiti has had a turbulent political history, marked by recurrent strife between those segments of the population wholly of African background and those only partly of African background. Dr. François "Papa Doc" Duvalier was elected president in September 1957 for a six-year term. He was made president for life by vote of the national assembly in May 1964, confirmed by a national referendum in June. Several abortive attempts have been made by disaffected Haitians to overthrow the Duvalier government--most recently in May 1968.

ECONOMY: More than 80 percent of Haiti's people live directly from agriculture. The irrigated lands of the Artibonite Plain produce two crops of rice per year, but elsewhere the margin between subsistence and hunger is slender. Coffee accounts for 50 percent of Haiti's export earnings. The next most valuable exports are bauxite, handicrafts, and copper, followed by sisal and sugar. In recent years new industries relating to the agricultural economy have been established, but uneasy economic and political conditions have worked against the government's policy of encouraging new investment. The country has a per capita gross national product of $70 a year, about the lowest in Latin America.

EDUCATION: Public education is free and legally compulsory; but school construction cannot yet keep up with population growth. The rate of illiteracy is 90 percent. In urban centers, the curriculum still tends to follow the French academic pattern; in rural areas, primary instruction is on the practical side, related to the government's program for community development. The University of Haiti is at Port-Au-Prince.

FOOD: Beans, rice, bananas, and corn are the main foods, enriched occasionally with chicken or fish. Sweet-potato pudding and mango pie are national favorites. Oranges, grapefruit, mangoes, bananas, and pineapples are plentiful.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: January 1, Independence Day, commemorates the day in 1804 when Jean Jacques Dessalines proclaimed independence from France and gave the new state the Indian name of Haiti. The Haitians emancipated themselves from both slavery and French rule, beginning with a revolt in 1791, shortly after the outbreak of the great revolution in France. Present-day Haitians are proud of their independence and of their country's historic position as the second independent nation of the Western Hemisphere.

HONDURAS

LOCATION AND SIZE: Honduras, a wedge-shaped Central American country, has a wide coastline along the Caribbean Sea and a narrow one on the Pacific. It is bordered by Guatemala and El Salvador on the west; Nicaragua on the east. Slightly larger than Ohio in size, Honduras covers an area of 42, 300 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The most mountainous of all Central American republics, Honduras has forests but no volcanoes. In the north, along the Caribbean, are tropical coastal plains good for banana and coffee growing. In the northeast, overlapping the border with Nicaragua, is the Mosquitia region--a wilderness of mountains, rivers, swamps and jungle, largely covered with mahogany and hardwood trees. Most of the population live in the highlands of the interior, where the climate is pleasantly moderate most of the year. Because of its mountainous terrain, Honduran airlines cross the republic in all directions.

CITIES: Tegucigalpa, the capital and largest city (population 242, 000), is built on the side of Mt. Pichaco, about 3, 200 feet above sea level. It is a picturesque city with attractive buildings and streets of steps connecting one level with another. There are several smaller cities in addition to the capital but 76 percent of the country's people dwell in rural areas. The ancient site of Copan, once a leading city of the great Empire of the Mayas, retains well-preserved examples of Maya art and architecture.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The population of Honduras (over 2. 5 million) is predominantly mestizo, of mixed Spanish and Indian descent; less than 5 percent of its people are white. The average life expectancy is 44 years. Medical facilities are limited; there is one physician for every 4, 486 people. Spanish is the official language of the country. Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion.

In July 1969 Honduras was invaded by neighboring El Salvador, which claimed that Honduras was mistreating the 280, 000 Salvadorans who had emigrated to Honduras.

POLITICAL BACKGROUND: Honduras, together with the other Central American provinces of the Captaincy General of Guatemala, achieved independence from Spain in 1821, was annexed to the Mexican empire in 1822-23, and became part of the Central American Federation from 1824 to 1838. Francisco Morazan, a Honduran, was the last president of the Federation and played a leading role in the unsuccessful effort to keep Central America united.

GOVERNMENT: A freely elected government led by the Liberal Party held office from December 1957 until October 1963, when it was overthrown by a military coup. Brig. Gen. Oswaldo Lopez Arellano served as Chief of the Military Government, which ruled by decree for 18 months and then restored representative government. A Constituent Assembly was elected, as scheduled, in February 1965. Representatives of the Nationalist Party won a majority of the Assembly seats and proceeded to elect Gen. Lopez as president of the Republic for a constitutional 6-year term. In June 1965 the president was inaugurated, and the Constituent Assembly transformed itself into the National Congress.

FOREIGN RELATIONS: Both the U. S. and Honduras claim sovereignty over the Swan Islands--two small islands 100 miles off the Honduran north coast.

ECONOMY: The economy is still almost completely agricultural, with bananas accounting for half of all Honduran exports. Other farm products include corn, coffee, beans, sugarcane, rice, and tobacco, with cattle raised on the central plateau. Though Honduras has some of the most abundant mineral resources and richest timber regions in Central America, lack of transportation and electric power have delayed their development.

A recent major stimulus to industrial development was the 1968 agreement between the International Paper Company and the Honduran government to establish a large pulp and paper complex on the north coast. The U. S. is the country's chief trading partner.

EDUCATION: Public education is free and legally compulsory between the ages of 7 and 15, but many of the children still are not enrolled in school (due partly to poor transportation and rural isolation). The literacy rate is about 48 percent. The government now is actively promoting primary education in rural areas through "nucleus" schools, designed to serve as centers of community development. Secondary schools often have different sections devoted to general education, teacher training, or commercial training. The National University of Honduras is at Comayaguela.

FOOD: Beans and corn cakes appear in most meals. Tamales in Honduras are prepared with chili, cornmeal, meat, chicken, and vegetables. Enchiladas contain meat, rice, beans, and other stuffings. Many types of fruit are served.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 15, Independence Day, commemorates the declaration of Central American independence from Spain in 1821.

JAMAICA

In 1958, several British colonies in the Caribbean area were grouped together in a Federation of the West Indies. The Federation was dissolved in May 1962, due to the decision of its two largest members, Jamaica and Trinidad, to withdraw and seek independence alone. Jamaica attained independence on August 6, 1962. Trinidad achieved independence on August 31, 1962.

LOCATION, SIZE, GEOGRAPHY: The newly independent state of Jamaica is the third largest Caribbean island with an area about the size of Connecticut. It lies in the Caribbean Sea, south of Cuba and west of Haiti. Jamaica is a mountainous and hilly island with a tropical climate. Montego Bay and other beach resort areas are on the northern coast. Kingston, the capital city, with a population of about 493,000, is on the southeast coast.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Over 1.2 million of the 2 million Jamaicans are Negroes, and about 300,000 are colored persons of mixed racial background. There are smaller communities of East Indians, Chinese, and whites. English is spoken throughout the island as well as a patois--a combination of English and African dialects. Many Christian denominations are represented in Jamaica, along with well-established Moslem, Hindu, and Jewish communities.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: The original inhabitants probably were Siboneys and later (A. D. 1000) Arawak Indians. Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in 1494 and settled by the Spanish in the sixteenth century. It was captured by the British in 1655 and transformed with sugar plantations worked by slaves imported from West Africa. The economy of Jamaica (and of other sugar-growing islands in the West Indies) was greatly weakened in the nineteenth century by the collapse of sugar prices and the abolition of slavery.

GOVERNMENT: Jamaica began to emerge from direct colonial rule in the 1930's and gained an increasing degree of home rule after World War II. Constitutional changes in 1959 gave Jamaica internal self-government within the Federation of the West Indies. In a referendum held on September 19, 1961, a majority of Jamaicans voted against remaining in the Federation. At the Jamaican Independence Conference in London during February 1962, a new constitution was agreed upon, independence was set for August 6, and provision was made for Jamaica to become an independent member of the British Commonwealth. Jamaica embarked on independence with a two-party system of parliamentary government under prime minister Sir Alexander Bustamante, leader of the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP), which retained control of the government in recent general elections.

ECONOMY: Agriculture, the basis of Jamaica's economy, provides a livelihood for 40 percent of the people and supplies most of the food for local consumption. Sugar, rum, and bananas traditionally have been the largest export items; citrus fruits now are processed into juices for export. Since 1952 bauxite mining has become the major industry, with some ore processed locally into alumina. Reynolds, Alcoa, and Kaiser are engaged in bauxite mining, while Aluminium Limited of Canada produces alumina. Exports of bauxite and alumina now are Jamaica's biggest dollar earners. The tourist industry also is important as a secondary source of dollar revenue. In relation to present economic activity, Jamaica is overpopulated, and many of its people are not fully employed all year round. From 8,000 to 10,000 farm workers come to the United States each year under a special Farm Labor Program.

EDUCATION: Primary education is free, the government has built many new schools since 1954, and there are several teacher-training colleges. School facilities and teaching staff, however, are still inadequate for local needs. Many secondary schools are private institutions associated with church groups and supported in part by government grants. Efforts are being made to expand vocational and technical training programs. The University of the West Indies serves all the Caribbean territories of the British Commonwealth; four of its faculties are in Jamaica, and two are in Trinidad.

FOOD: Rice, yams, sweet potatoes, fish, goat, beef, poultry, pork, and many varieties of tropical fruit are prominent in the local diet. Jamaica rum is world famous.

MEXICO

LOCATION AND SIZE: Mexico lies between the United States and Central America, with a 4,400-mile coastline on the Pacific and a 1,700-mile coastline on the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean. Covering a total area of 760,000 square miles, about one-fourth that of continental United States, Mexico ranks as third largest of the Latin American republics in size.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Mexico's landscape is characterized by a high interior plateau, averaging 3,000 to 4,000 feet in elevation in the north and from 7,000 to 8,000 feet further south. The plateau is flanked by chains of mountains on east and west, with a fringe of coastal lowlands lying between mountains and sea. The southern end of the plateau, near Mexico City, is crossed by broken ranges of mountains which include the great snow-clad cone of the Popocatepl (17,887 feet) and other high volcanic peaks. In the southeastern tip of the country is the lowland peninsula of Yucatan, in ancient times a center of Maya culture. The country's climate varies according to altitude and rainfall, ranging from humid and tropical in the south to semi-arid in the north. Many of the population centers, including Mexico City, are in the cool zone (above 6,000 feet).

CITIES: Mexico City, the capital, has a population of over 5 million living in the city and the surrounding areas. It was the site of the Aztec capital before being captured by the Spanish in 1521. Today it is a city of contrasts, with both ancient and ultramodern construction styles, and the center of the nation's political, cultural, economic, and industrial life. Guadalajara (population over 1 million) is Mexico's second largest city, located in the rich mining and agricultural area northwest of Mexico City. Monterrey (population 900,000) is the most important industrial center outside of the capital. Other important cities are Puebla, Merida, San Luis Potosi, and Veracruz. About half of Mexico's population is rural.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The people of Mexico (population 44.2 million) are largely of mixed Indian and Spanish descent. About 20 or 30 percent are Indian; some 10 percent are white. There is no significant racial conflict. Spanish is the official language; Mexico is the most populous Spanish-speaking country in the world. In religion, the majority are Roman Catholic. Church and state, however, are separated. No religious body can acquire landed property, and there is full religious freedom. Protestants number around one million.

GOVERNMENT: Mexico is a federal republic of 29 states, 2 territories, and a federal district (containing the capital). There is a tripartite division of powers--executive, legislative, and judicial. The president may not be reelected. The majority political party since 1929 has been the Partido Revolucionario Institucional (PRI). Three opposition parties are registered and hold seats in the Congress elected in 1964. The current president is Gustavo Diaz Ordaz, whose term ends November 30, 1970.

ECONOMY: Agriculture is the basic economic activity, the main crops being corn, wheat, beans, cotton, coffee, and sugar, with cattle raising of considerable importance. Although over half of Mexico's working people are engaged in agriculture, farming now accounts for less than one-fifth of the gross national product. Mining and petroleum production are important sources of national wealth, and the nation's industrial capacity is increasing rapidly.

Mexico has been embarked on an extensive program of economic development, rural education, and public works since the 1930's, an extension of the larger social and political revolution which began before World War I. The country is now self-sufficient in most foodstuffs. Its national income is approximately 10 times higher than it was 25 years ago and has been expanding somewhat more rapidly than the population in recent years.

EDUCATION: Primary education is free and compulsory. Enrollment has more than doubled at the primary level since 1930, but school facilities cannot yet keep up with population growth. At the secondary level, a student may prepare for university studies or enter a teacher-training, commercial, or vocational school. The National University in Mexico City dates back to 1551 and currently has over 58,000 students. There are also 16 state universities.

FOOD: Tortillas, the staple food, are thin pancakes made of finely ground corn and fried. Tacos are tortillas with a filling of meat, beans, rice, or various other edibles. Enchiladas consist of meat, chicken, cheese, or other edibles wrapped in a tortilla and then cooked. Rice and beans are served almost every day. There are a great number of regional dishes, not all of which are heavily spiced with chili.

HOLIDAY: September 16 is Mexico's national independence day, commemorating Hidalgo's declaration of independence from Spain in 1810. Independence was effectively achieved in 1821.

NICARAGUA

LOCATION AND SIZE: Largest of the Central American countries, Nicaragua is bounded on the north by Honduras, on the east by the Caribbean Sea, on the south by Costa Rica, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. About the size of Michigan, Nicaragua has an area of 57,100 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The country is crossed by two mountain ranges. Some of the mountain peaks are extinct volcanoes. There are two lakes: Lake Nicaragua, one of the world's largest freshwater lakes, nearly 100 miles long and 34 miles wide; and Lake Managua, 35 miles long and 15 miles wide. Nicaragua has a diversified climate. The weather is very rainy most of the year in the tropical eastern part of the country. Wet and dry seasons alternate in the plateau and uplands, where most of the population is concentrated.

CITIES: Managua, the capital, on the shores of scenic Lake Managua, is only 28 miles from the Pacific Ocean. The population numbers over 262,000; most of the city is fairly new, rebuilt after an earthquake in 1931. León, capital of the region in colonial times, has 50,000 inhabitants and is the intellectual center of the country. Its university granted degrees before the arrival of the Pilgrims in North America.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: About 70 percent of the 1.7 million population are of mixed Spanish and Indian descent (mestizo). The remainder are white, Negro, and Indian. Spanish is the official language, and Roman Catholicism is the predominant religion.

GOVERNMENT: The republic of Nicaragua is headed by an elected president with a cabinet to administer the various departments of the government. The legislature consists of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Former presidents become senators for life. The current president--General Anastasio Somoza--assumed a five-year term in 1967.

Members of the Somoza family have dominated Nicaragua for 37 years. First was General Anastasio Somoza's father, General "Tacho" Somoza, who took power in 1933 when the U.S. Marines withdrew after 20 years of more or less continuous occupation. His dictatorship lasted until his assassination in 1956.

The dictator's older son, Luis, was president from 1956 until 1963. From 1963 to 1967, behind two caretaker presidents, General "Tachito" Somoza ran the country as commander of the National Guard.

ECONOMY: Nicaragua is largely an agricultural country. Important exports include cotton, coffee, sesame, sugar, and meat, along with some gold. A substantial part of the arable land has not yet been brought under cultivation. Recently an agrarian reform institute was created to carry out a program of colonization and land settlement. Roads are inadequate for the needs of the expanding agricultural economy, and highway extension is a major government development project. Imports consist mainly of machinery, manufactured goods, and foodstuffs.

EDUCATION: Primary education is free and compulsory for all children, but the illiteracy rate is still high. Secondary education is offered by private institutions with government assistance. There are two universities. The National University of Nicaragua includes institutions at León and Managua. The Catholic University of Central America was established at Managua by the Jesuit order in 1961.

FOOD: Pork, beans, rice, and tortillas are popular. Avocados, pineapples, coconuts, mangoes, and other tropical fruits are common for dessert.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: September 15 is celebrated as Central American Independence Day.

PANAMA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The Republic of Panama is situated between Costa Rica in Central America and Colombia in South America. The Canal joining the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea crosses through Panama but was built and remains administered by the United States. The republic has an area of about 28, 575 square miles, excluding the Canal Zone--an area slightly smaller than South Carolina.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The isthmus of Panama is about 480 miles long from east to west, varies from 30 to 120 miles in width. The mountain chain that begins in Alaska and reaches down to the southern tip of Chile passes through Panama. Enclosed by the mountains are many well-drained valleys and plains, far from developed due to lack of transportation. Eastern Panama has large expanses of tropical jungle. Only the Tuira River is navigable.

The climate is tropical and quite humid. Temperatures average about 80 degrees in the lowlands, and around 55 degrees in the mountains, with little seasonal variation.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Because of its geographical position, Panama has attracted people from all parts of the world. Most of its 1. 3 million population are mestizo, of racially mixed ancestry. Spanish is the official language. Over 95 percent of the population are Roman Catholic. There is freedom of religious worship and separation of church and state.

CITIES: The capital is *Panama City*, population 373, 000, near the Pacific entrance of the Canal. A city of beautiful homes, modern buildings, and old colonial structures, it has a polyglot population without equal in all Latin America. *Colon*, on the Atlantic side, is Panama's second city, a center of international commerce with a population of about 64, 000 inhabitants. Geographically it is almost one with Cristobal city, which is part of the Canal Zone under the jurisdiction of the United States.

GOVERNMENT: A republic with nine provinces, Panama has a unicameral National Assembly whose deputies are elected for four-year terms. The president and the two vice-presidents also are elected by direct popular vote for terms of four years.

Panama has no regular army--only a National Guard of some 4, 500 men. On October 11, 1968, the National Guard overthrew President Arnulfo Arias, who had been elected on May 12, 1968. The U. S. briefly suspended diplomatic relations but resumed them on November 13.

ECONOMY: The operation of the Canal dominates Panama's economy. One-fourth of Panama's gross national product comes directly or indirectly from the Canal. The country is self-sufficient in corn, rice, sugar, and meat. Principal exports are bananas and shrimp. Imports consist of food products and manufactured goods. Panama has the fourth largest merchant fleet in the world, consisting mostly of foreign-owned ships. Rapid economic growth has been heavily concentrated in the urban areas; the rural half of the population has little contact with the money economy. Traces of copper and molybdenum discovered in early 1968 by a UN exploration team in Colon Province have provided a basis for the belief that the area contains deposits rich enough to warrant commercial exploitation.

EDUCATION: This young republic built in a few decades of the present century a complete system of education, from primary school to university studies. Primary education is compulsory and free. There are good secondary and normal schools, and a national university was inaugurated in 1935. The literacy rate is among the highest in Latin America.

FOOD: Spanish cooking is very popular. Omelets and *tortillas* are typical national dishes.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: November 3 is Panama's Independence Day.

THE CANAL: In 1881 the company of Ferdinand de Lesseps started work on the Canal. Unable to continue, they tried to sell the project and equipment to the United States with the consent of Colombia. The latter's refusal to ratify the treaty led Panama to proclaim, under the protection of the United States, her independence from Colombia (1903). The Canal was completed and opened to world traffic on August 15, 1914. The presence of the U. S. in the Canal Zone has been a recurrent issue in Panama's domestic politics. Panamanian riots in the Zone during January 1964 caused a major crisis between the two nations. An agreement was reached on

April 3, 1964, to reestablish diplomatic relations and to designate special ambassadors "to seek the prompt elimination of the causes of conflict between the two countries."

In December 1964 President Johnson announced the U.S. decision to proceed with construction of an interoceanic sea level canal to replace the existing canal. He also announced U.S. willingness to negotiate, for the period until the new canal becomes operational, a new treaty for the existing canal that would recognize Panamanian sovereignty in the Canal Zone. In September 1965 the U.S. and Panama agreed to negotiate a new treaty.

PARAGUAY

LOCATION AND SIZE: An inland country situated in the south-central part of South America, Paraguay is surrounded by Brazil, Bolivia, and Argentina. It has access to the sea through Argentina, via the Parana-Paraguay river system. It occupies an area of roughly 157, 000 square miles, about the size of California.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The Paraguay River divides the country into two regions. The Chaco area to the west is largely uninhabited. To the east is a flat and fertile plain, with wooded hills, known as the Parana plateau. Paraguay's rivers are her commercial highways. The plateau region, where most of the people live, is subtropical with a mild climate. Seasons are opposite to those in the U. S. ; for example, the winter months are from June to mid-September.

CITIES: Asuncion, the capital, has a population of 305, 000. It is the cultural, commercial, industrial, and financial center of Paraguay, a charming city with traditional colonial buildings as well as modern structures. Another major city is Encarnacion, population 35, 000, a commercial center, port, and terminal of the Paraguayan Railroad.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: About 95 percent of the nation's 2. 12 million people are of mixed Spanish and Guarani Indian origin. European immigration has been largely absorbed into the local Spanish-Guarani stock. Much of the population is rural, living in the countryside or in small settlements. Paraguay is a bilingual country. Spanish is the official language, but Guarani is spoken almost universally. Roman Catholicism is the state religion, and the government controls all church appointments; but there is freedom of religion in practice.

GOVERNMENT: The republic of Paraguay is headed by a president elected by direct vote for a five-year term. Legislative power is vested in a House of Representatives. On August 25, 1967, a new constitution was proclaimed as a result of a constituent convention. General Alfredo Stroessner was reelected president for his third full term in 1968. The 1963 and 1968 presidential elections were the first since 1928 in which opposition candidates competed.

ECONOMY: Paraguay's economy is based primarily on agriculture, cattle raising, and forestry. Cotton and tobacco are the chief export crops; food crops include mandioca, sugarcane, rice, and corn. Forest products include quebracho extract, lumber, and logs. Several major public works have been financed by U. S. and Brazilian loans, including an all-weather highway to the Brazilian and Bolivian frontiers.

EDUCATION: The system of public education in Paraguay begins with the primary school, which is free and compulsory, and continues to the university level. There are several agricultural schools and important institutions for development of the fine arts. The National University of Paraguay is in Asuncion, as are the French Jesuit Junior College of San José and the International Junior College supported by U. S. Protestants.

CUSTOMS AND FOOD: Business hours extend from early morning until late afternoon, with a midday break for siesta. Breakfast usually consists of maté (a bitter kind of tea) or coffee, with roll or pastries. Lunch is at noon, and dinner is late. Meat is prominent in all national dishes, served with vegetables and mandioca.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: May 14 is celebrated as Independence Day, marking the occasion in 1811 when Pedro Cabellero, the national hero, forced the Spanish governor to share his authority with local people. There are several other holidays associated with historical events, as well as various religious holidays of the Catholic Church.

PERU

LOCATION AND SIZE: Peru lies on the Pacific coast of South America. It is bounded on the north by Ecuador and Colombia, on the south by Chile, and on the east by Brazil and Bolivia. Nearly twice the size of Texas, Peru covers about 496, 000 square miles of territory and is the third largest country in South America.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: The landscape of Peru includes coastal desert, Andean highlands, and tropical lowlands east of the Andes. Along the coast, there is almost no rainfall, and winter weather is foggy and chilly. In the Andean highlands, the climate varies with elevation and is more uniform than on the coast. In forested regions of the tropical lowlands, temperatures are hot and rains are heavy. Seasons are opposite to those in the U.S., e.g., summer starts in December.

CITIES: Lima, the capital, with a population of over 2 million, is the center of Peruvian political, economic, and intellectual life. New modern buildings next to sumptuous colonial landmarks give Lima a unique character. The city was founded by Pizarro in 1535 and served in colonial times as the seat of the Spanish viceroy who ruled over most of Spanish South America. Callao, the port of Lima, is about 7 miles from the capital. The country's second largest city is Arequipa, population over 155, 000, located in the rich agricultural and livestock region of the south. Cuzco, population 78, 000, is the archaeological capital of South America, the ancient and sacred capital city of the Incas.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: About 46 percent of the country's estimated 12.4 million population is Indian, around 11 percent is of Spanish descent, and the remainder is chiefly of mixed Indian and Spanish origin. Spanish is the official language, spoken by two-thirds of the people. Most of the rest speak only Quechua or Aymara (Indian languages). The government protects the Roman Catholic religion, but there is religious freedom for all. Marriages must be civil, and divorce is permitted.

GOVERNMENT: The Republic of Peru has a centralized form of government. In July 1962 a military junta deposed President Manuel Prado, took over the government, and annulled the June elections to check the influence of the left-wing, anti-Communist APRA party. The junta held new elections in June 1963. Constitutional government was restored the following month when the newly elected president, Fernando Belaúnde Terry, took office. In October 1968 President Belaúnde was ousted, and General Juan Velasco Alvarado became president.

ECONOMY: Nearly 58 percent of the country's people depend on the agriculture of cotton, sugar, wool, coffee, and rice, to a large extent with the aid of irrigation. Wheat, potatoes, beans, barley, and tobacco also are raised; corn is the staple food crop among the Indians. With the exception of chrome, all major minerals are found in Peru. Large copper and iron deposits have recently been developed with U.S. capital. Peru now has a steel mill of its own, but textile production is the largest manufacturing industry. The petroleum refinery at Talara is the main one on the west coast of South America.

Peru is the world's top fishing nation--mostly anchovies from the coastal current. Peru claims jurisdiction over Pacific waters 200 miles offshore, and in early 1968 seized several American fishing boats for violating this limit. Peru also clashed with the U.S. over Peru's confiscation of most of the available assets of a subsidiary of the U.S.'s Standard Oil Company. Fishmeal is the largest export; copper second.

EDUCATION: Public education is free and legally obligatory between the ages of 7 and 14. Increasing efforts have been made in recent years to extend primary schools into remote rural regions inhabited by scattered Indian communities. Nearly two-thirds of the country's secondary schools are private--often with religious affiliation. The University of San Marcos in Lima, the oldest university on the South American continent (founded in 1551), is famous for its long tradition of academic excellency. There are eight other universities.

FOOD: Each region of Peru has its own popular dishes. Tamales generally are prepared with corn and black kidney beans, strongly spiced; fish is served in various ways; meat is prepared with potatoes and served with rice. In addition to temperate zone fruits, Peruvians are accustomed to avocados, mangoes, papaya, and other tropical fruits.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 28 is celebrated as Independence Day, marking the date in 1821 when the Argentine General José de San Martin proclaimed the independence of Peru. Independence from Spain was effectively achieved three years later.

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

In 1958, several British colonies in the Caribbean area were grouped together in a Federation of the West Indies. The Federation was dissolved in May 1962, due to the decision of its two largest members, Jamaica and Trinidad, to withdraw and seek independence alone. Jamaica attained independence on August 6, 1962. Trinidad achieved independence on August 31, 1962.

LOCATION AND SIZE: The island of Trinidad, which lies only seven miles off the coast of Venezuela, has an area of 1,864 square miles. Constitutionally, it is linked with the small island of Tobago. Hence, the official name of the country is Trinidad and Tobago. Tobago, a scenic island of 116 square miles, lies 19 miles to the northeast of Trinidad.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Steep, rocky hills are characteristic of Trinidad's landscape. In the southwestern corner of the island lies famous Pitch Lake, the world's largest natural asphalt bog, extending over 104 acres, worked for export to the U.S. and for surfacing local roads. The climate is tropical, with little variation in temperature between the dry and the rainy seasons.

Tobago's highest point is 1,800 feet--a part of a volcanic ridge that runs the center length of the island. Tobago has cooler temperatures than Trinidad.

CAPITAL: Port of Spain, a seaport city on Trinidad's west coast, has a population of 250,000 in the metropolitan area. Southeast of the city is Piarco Airport, a focal point of Caribbean air traffic.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Trinidad has a multiracial population of one million, derived from three historic currents of immigration--early European colonists, West African slaves, and Asian laborers imported after the slaves were emancipated. Today nearly two-thirds of its people are Negroes or persons of mixed racial background. About one-third are East Indians, and some are Chinese. The small white element is chiefly English, French, and Spanish. English is the official language, creolized in popular speech. In religion, the population is mainly Protestant or Roman Catholic. The East Indian minority is largely Hindu, to a lesser extent Moslem.

Tobago's population is predominantly Negro; its chief town is Scarborough.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND: Both islands were discovered by Columbus in 1498. Trinidad became a possession of the Crown of Spain. Captured by a British expedition during the Napoleonic wars, the territory was ceded to the British Crown in 1802 by the Treaty of Amiens. Tobago was ceded to Great Britain in 1814.

GOVERNMENT: Advances toward home rule were obtained in the 1950's, and in December 1961 Trinidad was granted internal self-government within the Federation of the West Indies. As a result of Jamaica's decision to secede from the Federation, Trinidad also expressed a desire to withdraw. At the Trinidad-Tobago Independence Conference in London during May-June 1962, a new constitution was agreed upon, independence was set for August 31, 1962, and provision was made for Trinidad and Tobago to become an independent member of the British Commonwealth. Trinidad was led to independence by Prime Minister Eric Williams, leader of the majority party in the House of Representatives, the lower house of the country's bicameral legislature.

ECONOMY: In recent years crude oil has supplanted tropical agriculture as the mainstay of Trinidad's economy. Large oil refineries make it possible to refine twice as much oil in Trinidad as is produced locally, and crude oil is imported from Venezuela and Saudi Arabia. Over one-third of the government's revenues come from the oil industry; petroleum accounts for 85 percent of the country's exports; over 18,000 workers are employed directly in oil operations. The chief agricultural products are sugar, cocoa, coconuts, citrus fruits, and coffee, with processing industries for rum, coconut oils, and canned citrus juices. Commercial estates cover 70 percent of the cropland and provide the bulk of the export crops. Many foodstuffs as well as manufactured goods must be imported. Tourism is an important source of revenue.

In May 1968 the islands joined with other English-speaking Caribbean states to form a Caribbean Free Trade Area (CARIFTA). Complete free trade is to take place among member states in 10 years.

EDUCATION: Schools are overcrowded, and there is a shortage of trained teachers. Literacy in the two islands is estimated at 78 percent. Public primary and secondary education is free up to age 18. Government schools are increasing in number, but many of Trinidad's schools still are run by denominational groups with government financial aid. Training programs for skilled workers are provided by the oil industry. Higher education is available at the University of the West Indies, which is centered in Jamaica but has its agricultural and engineering faculties in Trinidad.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: August 31, Independence Day.

URUGUAY

LOCATION AND SIZE: Uruguay is situated on the southeastern coast of South America, between the southern tip of Brazil and the estuary of the Rio de la Plata, across from Buenos Aires. Slightly larger than South Dakota, Uruguay covers an area of 72,172 square miles.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Almost all Uruguay is a rolling lowland plain, a transition between the Argentine pampas and the uplands of Brazil. Most of the country is covered with prairie grass, excellent for stock raising and agriculture. Seasons in Uruguay are opposite to those in the United States. June is the coldest month with a temperature of 50 degrees, and January is the warmest month with a temperature of about 75 degrees. The annual rainfall is about 40 inches.

CAPITAL CITY: Montevideo, on the north shore of the Plate River, is the political, commercial, and cultural center of the country. The city contains about 1.3 million people, some 45 percent of the country's population. There are no other large cities. There is a large urban middle class and a relative lack of urban slums. The country's depressed areas are scattered through the rural interior.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: Uruguay's people (2.8 million) are almost wholly of European descent, and there are traces of Indian ancestry in only 10 percent of the population. The language and cultural backgrounds of the country are Spanish, although much of the population is of Italian origin. The religious affiliation of the majority is Roman Catholic. Church and state are separated, and religious freedom is recognized.

GOVERNMENT: In November 1966 Uruguay voted to reestablish a presidential form of government. Uruguay's legislature is a bicameral General Assembly, composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The two traditional political parties are the Colorados and the Blancos, now divided into numerous factions. There are also several smaller parties. Oscar D. Gestido became president on March 1, 1967, for a five-year term.

A general strike in 1968 brought government efforts to strengthen the economy by devaluation of the peso, rationing of electricity, and wage and price controls.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT: Uruguay has been known as a "welfare state" because of its record in the field of social legislation. The first South American country to enfranchise women, it was among the first also to legalize divorce and recognize the right of labor unions to defend their rights. Its standard of living is one of the highest in the continent, and per capita income is estimated to be $569 a year. More than one-third of the workers are government employees. The state owns the power, telephone, railroad, cement, oil-refining, and other industries.

ECONOMY: Some 85 percent of the rich agricultural land is devoted to stock raising, and wool production plays an important part in the national economy. There are few mineral deposits; all petroleum must be imported. The principal industries are meat packing, textiles, tires, petroleum refining, cement, metallurgy, chemicals, and food and beverage production. Uruguay exports wool, meat and meat extracts, grain and agricultural products, and hides and skins. In recent years, a stagnant level of production and mounting inflation have posed serious problems, which the government has tried to solve in part by devaluing the peso, rationing electricity, and instituting wage and price controls.

EDUCATION: The country has a high rate of literacy (about 91 percent). Elementary schooling is compulsory and free for all. Secondary, technical, and higher education is available without cost. The University of Montevideo was founded in 1849. There is a rich national tradition in literature and the arts.

FOOD: Uruguayan food includes a wide variety of meats, fish, vegetables, and fruits. Roasts, stew, and meat pies are popular. Meals generally consist of a light breakfast of coffee and bread, a hot meal at home at noon, a snack at six o'clock, and a hearty supper around nine or ten o'clock in the evening.

HOLIDAYS: April 19 is the Day of the Thirty-Three, the patriots who fought for Uruguay's independence in 1825. June 19 is the birthday of Artigas, the national hero. August 25 is Uruguay's national independence day, marking the Declaration of Independence in 1825, after the struggle led by the 33 patriots.

VENEZUELA

LOCATION AND SIZE: The republic of Venezuela, situated on the northern coast of South America, has a coastline of more than 1,700 miles along the Caribbean Sea. It is bordered by Colombia on the west and southwest, by Brazil on the south, and by Guyana on the east. Territorially, Venezuela covers an area of 352,150 square miles, about the size of Texas and Oklahoma combined. It includes 72 islands, the largest being Margarita, an important pearl center.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Venezuela has four distinct geographic regions: the unique Lake Maracaibo basin in the northwest; an arm of the Andes Mountains that becomes lower and more fragmentary near the coast; the large interior grasslands (or llanos) that form part of the great Orinoco River basin; and the equally extensive but little known Guiana Highlands south and east of the Orinoco. In 1967 South America's largest suspension bridge was opened across the Orinoco River.

The highest waterfall in the world is in the Guiana Highlands and is named Angel Falls after Jimmy Angel, the U.S. aviator who discovered it in 1937. While Venezuela lies wholly within the tropics, climate varies according to altitude--from the hot and humid Maracaibo and Orinoco basins to the temperate weather of Caracas (in the mountains near the coast) and the snow-capped peaks of the high Andes.

CITIES: Caracas, 3,415 feet above sea level (with a population of nearly 1.7 million), is the capital as well as the commercial and cultural center of the country. One of the wealthiest and most beautiful cities in South America, it displays some of the most modern and colorful architecture in the entire Western Hemisphere. Historically, it was the birthplace of Simón Bolívar, The Liberator, who helped free northern South America from Spanish rule in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Other major Venezuelan cities include Maracaibo (population 535,000), the oil metropolis, and Barquisimeto (population 253,000), an agricultural, industrial, and commercial center in the northeast.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION: The estimated 9.6 million population of Venezuela includes diverse ethnic groups. About 20 percent of the people are of European background. Another 8 percent are Negroes, living mostly along the Caribbean. The great majority are mestizo, of Indian-white and Indian-Negro ancestry. Spanish is the official language. Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion. Other religions are tolerated.

Some four-fifths of the country's people live in the northern highlands and coastal regions. Migration from the countryside to the cities has prevailed in recent years, and about two-thirds of the population now live in urban areas. There is a great imbalance in development between urban and rural areas, and the technological and cultural progress of the former is just now beginning to affect older patterns of life in the countryside.

GOVERNMENT: The republic of Venezuela has had a turbulent political history, and the struggle to achieve democratic government has been a long one.

In December 1968 Rafael Caldera won the presidency--the first opposition leader to win power democratically in his country's 148-year history. He has legalized the Communist Party, freed political prisoners, curbed the political police, and promised amnesty to all guerrillas who would lay down their arms. Caldera has also reversed Venezuela's policy of severing relations with any country taken over by a coup.

ECONOMY: The country has an abundance of natural resources. Vast amounts of petroleum are produced in the Lake Maracaibo area and some in northeastern Venezuela. Important iron ore deposits are being opened up at Cerro Bolívar in the Orinoco region. Air transport and motor highways are becoming more extensive. The great potential resources of the interior, however, are still largely untapped.

Petroleum accounts for over 90 percent of Venezuela's export earnings, the country being the world's third largest producer of this product (after the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.). With revenues from oil profits, Venezuela has established a large iron and steel plant and is developing hydroelectric power. Construction, textile, and food-processing industries also are growing, but most manufactured goods still are imported--above all from the U.S. Agriculture and stock raising, though accounting for less than 10 percent of national production, engage the largest portion of the working force (34 percent). Coffee and cocoa are the leading commercial crops, while corn, rice, beans, and fruit are raised for local consumption. The country must import much of its food.

EDUCATION: Public high schools, vocational high schools, and teacher-training institutes are being expanded to accommodate larger enrollments. The country now has six universities, including the spectacular University City campus of Central University (Caracas), one of the most modern educational facilities in the world. Education is free in all public institutions through the university level. Primary education is compulsory.

FOOD: The most distinctive national dish is sancocho, a stew of meat or fish, with vegetables and fruits. Another is hallacas, the Venezuelan version of a tamale, consisting of a spicy meat mixture wrapped in cornmeal dough and boiled. Paella, a chicken dish served with rice, also is popular. Ensalada de bacalao consists of cold boiled codfish with raw onions and cold potatoes, dressed with oil and vinegar.

NATIONAL HOLIDAYS: July 5 is celebrated as Venezuela's Independence Day. July 24 commemorates Bolívar's birthday (1783).

CANADA

LOCATION: Canada occupies the entire northern part of the North American continent with the exception of Alaska and Greenland. Its territory stretches from the Atlantic Ocean on the east to the Pacific Ocean and the State of Alaska on the west, from the Arctic Ocean on the north to the U.S. border on the south. With the United States, Canada has a common boundary of 5,500 miles of land and water (including the Alaska border). In the far north, Canada's Arctic frontier extends within a few hundred miles of the North Pole, and across the polar ice lies Soviet Russia.

SIZE AND POPULATION: Territorially, Canada is the second largest country in the world, its area of 3,851,000 square miles exceeded only by the Soviet Union. This vast land supports over 20.7 million people, more than two thirds of them clustered along the southern rim of the country, within 200 miles of the U.S. border. While settlement is expanding northward into the interior the outlying regions of the Yukon and the Northwest Territories, accounting for two fifths of the country's area, have only 45,000 inhabitants, nearly half of them Indians and Eskimos.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES: Population patterns have been influenced by the existence of three great expanses of semibarren territory--the Canadian Shield, the Arctic, and the Western mountain ranges. The Shield is a rugged area of ancient rock, low hills, lakes, and swamp surrounding Hudson Bay and comprising most of eastern and central Canada; its valuable mineral, timber, and water resources are still in process of development. Southeast of the Shield is the populous industrial and agricultural lowland bordering the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River (Ontario and Quebec provinces); further east is the rolling Appalachian country of the Atlantic Provinces (near Maine). West of the Shield lie the wheat-growing and mineral-producing regions of the Prairie Provinces (Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta); in the far west are the mountainous borderlands of British Columbia and the Yukon Territory, laced with towering ranges of the Canadian Rockies, the Mackenzie Mountains, and the Pacific Coastal Ranges.

Climate varies regionally, ranging from arctic to mild. The most populous regions generally have temperate weather, with long cold winters. In the Vancouver area of British Colombia, however, summers are long and winters mild. The interior Prairie Provinces generally have hot summers, cold winters, and scant rainfall.

CITIES: Canada's industrial growth in recent decades has transformed it from a rural agrarian society to a primarily urban and industrial nation. Over 60 percent of the population live in cities and towns, and nearly 25 percent of all Canadians dwell in large cities of 100,000 or more.

Ottawa, the federal capital, is a city of over 494,000 people (including the suburban population) situated in southwestern Ontario on a tributary of the St. Lawrence River. The country's four largest cities (including suburban populations) are Montreal, Quebec, a business center and port of entry on the upper St. Lawrence River (population over 2.4 million); Toronto, southeastern Ontario, a commercial center (over 2.1 million people); Vancouver, British Columbia, a major port on the west coast (population over 892,000); and Winnipeg, Manitoba, inland center of the grain and cattle trade (population over 508,000).

PEOPLE, RELIGION, LANGUAGE: Canada's population long has included two major ethnic groups--the British and the French. Today nearly half are English-speaking persons of British stock (i.e., English, Scotch, and Irish ancestry). Nearly one third are of French origin, mainly descendants of French colonists who stayed in Canada after it fell under British rule (1763). Most French Canadians are concentrated in Quebec province, where they retain a distinctive way of life. Under the Canadian Constitution, both French and English rank as official languages and French-speaking Canadians have the right to maintain a state-supported Catholic school system.

As a result of continuing immigration, many other European nationalities are also represented in Canada, including Germans, Ukrainians, Scandinavians, Dutch, Poles, Italians, and Hungarians. These groups are often referred to as New Canadians. Aboriginal Indians and Eskimos together account for only 1 percent of the population.

In religion, about 46 percent are Roman Catholic; most of these are French Canadians. There are many different Protestant groups. The two largest are the United Church of Canada (a union of Methodists, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians)--20 percent--and the Anglican Church of Canada--13 percent. The country also has a substantial Jewish minority.

MODERN HISTORY: Canada was first a colony of France and then a colony of Britain. It was ceded to Britain in 1763 (after France was defeated in the Seven Years War), and its British connection was soon strengthened by the arrival of 40,000 United Empire Loyalists who had refused to join in the American Revolution.

During the nineteenth century, the people of Canada gradually gained effective self-government in domestic affairs while remaining within the framework of the British Empire. The major step toward nationhood came in the British North American Act of 1867, which created a federal union of the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick under the name of Canada and based the new federal government on the parliamentary system already functioning in the provinces. The western parts of Canada were later incorporated into the federal structure, and with the entry of Newfoundland in 1949 confederation was completed.

At the beginning of the twentieth century Canada's foreign affairs were still conducted from London. After World War I, Canada assumed increasing responsibility for its own foreign relations. At the same time it actively promoted the Commonwealth idea of transforming relationships between the British dominions and the mother country into a free association of sovereign and equal nations, an idea given legal form by the British Statute of Westminster in 1931. Today Canada is fully independent in both internal and foreign affairs, but retains formal ties with Britain through allegiance to the crown and membership in the Commonwealth of Nations.

GOVERNMENT: Canada has a parliamentary system of government within a federal structure. Its 10 provinces and 2 territories are united under a powerful federal government, which controls matters concerning the country as a whole. The provincial governments have administrative and legislative authority over such matters as education, property laws, and health. The Yukon and Northwest Territories are governed by federally appointed commissioners, assisted by territorial councils.

The federal parliament includes an appointed Senate and a popularly elected House of Commons. The prime minister is the leader of the dominant political party in the House; he and his cabinet are responsible to the House and must retain majority support in that body on important issues to stay in power. The two major political parties are the Progressive-Conservatives and the Liberals. Wide differences of opinion exist within each of these parties, and legislation sponsored by either of them tends to be the result of compromise.

Queen Elizabeth II is Queen of Canada and head of the Canadian State. She is represented in Ottawa by a governor-general, who has no actual authority over the Canadian government.

U.S.-CANADIAN RELATIONS: For nearly a century U.S.-Canadian relations have been based on mutual trust, symbolized by a peaceful, unfortified boundary across the breadth of the continent. Developments since World War II have increased the countries' interdependence on each other in military and economic matters.

To protect both nations from possible air attack over the North Pole, the U.S. and Canada have built a common defense structure extending as far north as the Arctic.

In foreign trade Canada is the U.S.'s best single customer and its most important single supplier, taking about one fifth of all U.S. exports and providing nearly the same proportion of our imports. Major items purchased by the U.S. are newsprint, nonferrous metals (including copper, zinc, nickel, aluminum, uranium), iron ore, and crude petroleum. U.S. sales to Canada include steel products, industrial machinery, fuels, and consumer goods.

Canada buys considerably more from the U.S. than it sells to this country, the deficit being overcome in large part by the flow of U.S. private long-term investment capital into Canada, which totaled $16.8 billion in 1966--about two fifths of all such U.S. investment abroad. Over 5,000 subsidiaries of U.S. corporations do business in Canada.

Cultural contacts between the two nations have been multiplied by mass communications media; and many Canadians now view American television and movies, read American magazines and paperbacks, and rely on American-style newspapers. As the Canadian way of living has become increasingly influenced by the United States, many of our northern neighbors have been calling for more vigorous assertion of their separate national identity.

ECONOMY: Among the nations of the world, Canada now ranks about sixth in industrial output, third in agricultural production, and fifth in international trade. Canada's industrial base has expanded very rapidly since World War II, and manufacturing has become the country's foremost economic activity--employing nearly one third of the working population and contributing more to the country's wealth than farming, fishing, mining, and electric power combined. The leading manufacturing industries are newsprint and pulp production, nonferrous metal smelting and refining, and petroleum refining; others of considerable importance are motor vehicles, food processing, saw-milling, iron and steel, electrical apparatus, rubber goods, and aircraft.

Agriculture remains an important economic activity, employing 8 percent of the working population. As in the United States, an increasing quantity of foodstuffs is being produced by a declining number of agricultural workers. Canada is able to export over one third of its total agricultural production. Wheat comprises more than half of all agricultural exports, but in recent years the country has been faced with the problem of disposing of large surpluses of wheat (like the U. S.).

Almost one fourth of every dollar earned by Canadians comes from the production of goods which are sold abroad, and Canadians themselves buy a wide range of goods from other countries.

EDUCATION: Each Canadian province is responsible for its own system of education, independent of any control by the federal government. The 10 provincial systems are similar in many respects. All provinces have compulsory education from ages 6 or 7 through age 15 (or through 16 in some urban areas). Primary and secondary education ordinarily is free.

In the Province of Quebec, where the French Catholic tradition prevails, there is a dual system of publicly supported schools from kindergarten to the teacher-training and university level based on Catholic and Protestant beliefs. In several other provinces--including Ontario, Alberta, and Saskatchewan--religious groups have the right to operate their own (separate) schools as part of the public school system. Newfoundland has a public-denominational system; its schools are administered by five different religious bodies, but use the same curriculum and teacher-training institutions.

Provincial universities exist in all provinces except Quebec and Prince Edward Island. Quebec's six chartered universities receive government grants but are privately controlled; they include McGill University (nonsectarian) and Laval and Montreal (Catholic). There is a large unsponsored movement of college students between Canada and the U. S.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: July 1 is celebrated as the birthday of Canadian confederation (1867); it is often referred to as Dominion Day.

APPENDICES

CALENDAR OF NATIONAL HOLIDAYS

JANUARY

1	Cameroon	Independence Day
1	Haiti	Independence Day
1	Sudan	Independence Day
1	Western Samoa	Independence Day
4	Burma	Independence Day
11	Chad	Independence Day
26	Australia	Australia Day
26	India	Republic Day
31	Nauru	Independence Day

FEBRUARY

4	Ceylon	Independence Day
6	New Zealand	New Zealand Day
18	Nepal	National Day
18	The Gambia	Independence Day
25	Kuwait	National Day
27	Dominican Rep.	Independence Day

MARCH

3	Morocco	National Day
6	Ghana	Independence Day
11	Denmark	King's Birthday
12	Mauritius	Independence Day
17	Ireland	St. Patrick's Day
23	Pakistan	Pakistan Day
25	Greece	Independence Day

APRIL

4	Hungary	Liberation Day
4	Senegal	Independence Day
17	Syria	Evacuation Day
26	Tanzania	Union Day
27	Sierra Leone	Independence Day
27	Togo	Independence Day
29	Japan	Emperor's Birthday
30	Netherlands	Queen's Birthday

MAY

9	Czechoslovakia	Republic Day
11	Laos	National Day
14	Paraguay	Independence Day
15	Israel (1967)	Independence Day
17	Norway	Constitution Day
25	Argentina	National Day
26	Guyana	Independence Day
27	Afghanistan	Independence Day
31	South Africa	Republic Day

JUNE

1	Tunisia	National Day
2	Italy	Republic Day
10	Portugal	Portugal Day
11	Britain (1964)	Queen's Birthday
12	Philippines	Independence Day
17	Iceland	Republic Day
23	Luxembourg	Grand Duchess Day
30	Congo (Kinshasa)	Independence Day

JULY

1	Burundi	Independence Day
1	Canada	Confederation Day
1	Rwanda	Independence Day
1	Somalia	Independence Day
4	U. S. A.	Independence Day
5	Venezuela	Independence Day
6	Malawi	Independence Day
14	France	Bastille Day
14	Iraq	Republic Day
18	Spain	Spanish Labor Day
20	Colombia	Independence Day
21	Belgium	Independence Day
22	Poland	Liberation Day
23	Ethiopia	Emperor's Birthday
23	United Arab Republic	National Day
26	Liberia	Independence Day
28	Peru	Independence Day

AUGUST

1	Dahomey	Independence Day
1	Switzerland	Confederation Day
6	Bolivia	Independence Day
7	Ivory Coast	Independence Day
10	Ecuador	Independence Day
15	Congo (Brazzaville)	Independence Day
15	Korea	Independence Day
16	Cyprus	Independence Day
17	Gabon	Independence Day
17	Indonesia	Independence Day
23	Romania	Liberation Day
25	Uruguay	Independence Day
31	Malaysia	National Day

SEPTEMBER

6	Swaziland	Independence Day
7	Brazil	Independence Day
9	Bulgaria	Liberation Day
15	Costa Rica	Independence Day
15	El Salvador	Independence Day
15	Guatemala	Independence Day
15	Honduras	Independence Day
15	Nicaragua	Independence Day
16	Mexico	Independence Day
18	Chile	Independence Day
22	Mali	Republic Day
23	Saudi Arabia	Unification Day
26	Yemen	National Day
30	Botswana	Independence Day

OCTOBER

1	Nigeria	Independence Day
2	Guinea	Independence Day
4	Lesotho	Independence Day
9	Uganda	Independence Day
10	Nationalist China	Republic Day
12	Equatorial Guinea	Independence Day
14	Malagasy	Republic Day
20	Mongolia	Independence Day
24	Zambia	Independence Day
26	Iran	Shah's Birthday
29	Turkey	Republic Day

NOVEMBER

1	Algeria	National Day
3	Panama	Independence Day
7	U. S. S. R.	Soviet Revolution
9	Cambodia	Independence Day
11	Maldive Islands	Republic Day
11	Sweden	King's Birthday
14	Jordan	King's Birthday
22	Lebanon	Independence Day
28	Burundi	Republic Day
28	Mauritania	Independence Day
29	Yugoslavia	Republic Day
30	Barbados	Independence Day
30	Southern Yemen	Independence Day

DECEMBER

1	Central African Republic	Independence Day
5	Thailand	King's Birthday
6	Finland	Independence Day
11	Upper Volta	Republic Day
12	Kenya	Independence Day
18	Niger	Republic Day
24	Libya	Independence Day

126 MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS

AUGUST 1969

Afghanistan
Albania
Algeria
Argentina
Australia
Austria
Barbados
Belgium
Bolivia
Botswana
Brazil
Bulgaria
Burma
Burundi
Byelorussian S. S. R.
Cambodia
Cameroon
Canada
Central African Republic
Ceylon
Chad
Chile
China
Colombia
Congo (Brazzaville)
Congo (Kinshasa)
Costa Rica
Cuba
Cyprus
Czechoslovakia
Dahomey
Denmark
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Equatorial Guinea
Ethiopia
Finland
France
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Greece
Guatemala
Guinea
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Hungary
Iceland
India
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Ivory Coast
Jamaica
Japan
Jordan
Kenya
Kuwait
Laos
Lebanon
Lesotho
Liberia
Libya
Luxembourg
Malagasy Republic
Malawi
Malaysia
Maldive Islands
Mali
Malta
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mexico
Mongolia
Morocco
Nepal
Netherlands
New Zealand
Nicaragua
Niger
Nigeria
Norway
Pakistan
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Philippines
Poland
Portugal
Romania
Rwanda
Saudi Arabia
Senegal
Sierra Leone
Singapore
Somalia
South Africa
Southern Yemen
Spain
Sudan
Swaziland
Sweden
Syria
Tanzania
Thailand
Togo
Trinidad and Tobago
Tunisia
Turkey
Uganda
Ukrainian S. S. R.
U. S. S. R. (Soviet Russia)
United Arab Republic
United Kingdom
United States
Upper Volta
Uruguay
Venezuela
Yemen
Yugoslavia
Zambia

A NOTE ON HINDUISM

Hinduism, the traditional religion of India, traces its origins back thousands of years, some of its features even antedating the coming of the Aryans around 1500 B.C. The Aryans themselves in the hymns of their sacred *Rig-Veda* depict a polytheism resembling that of the Greeks. Merger of the Aryans with the earlier Dravidian peoples of India greatly increased the role of the priests and produced the four-fold caste system of *Brahmins* or priests, *Kshatriyas* or warriors, *Vaisyas* or merchants, and *Sudras* or serfs. These castes later divided into hundreds of subcastes, and the observance of the proper ritual and tabus of each group has ever since been the social basis of Hinduism as a religion.

Common to most schools of Hindu thought (as also of Buddhist thought) is a belief in the doctrine of rebirth or reincarnation in a seemingly unending cycle of life and death. The complementary doctrine of Karma explains one's status in a given incarnation as the consequence of one's deeds or thoughts in previous incarnations. Though remarkably comprehensive in answering the questions of day-to-day living, these two doctrines, plus the caste system into which they fitted, left many still unsatisfied religiously. The prospect of interminable rebirth gave rise to a longing for escape or release which was expressed in the Vedanta philosophy portrayed in the *Upanishads*.

Vedanta teaches that, properly understood, the world is illusion (Maya), including the apparent cycle of rebirth. Instead the ultimate reality is Brahman, an undefinable essence which pervades all things. The Brahman is present in the individual self where it is known as Atman. Atman is only an aspect of Brahman, the aspect which is accessible to the individual directly through a mystical inner experience. When the individual realizes this, he escapes from the concept of separateness, from the world of appearance and illusion, and from the cycle of rebirth. He attains release (Mukti). He becomes one with Brahman.

Between the popular belief in rebirth and polytheism on the one hand and the esoteric doctrine of Vedanta on the other, Hinduism has developed a vast proliferation of more personalized or more monotheistic forms of belief. These center around the divine trinity of *Brahma* as the creator, *Vishnu* as the preserver, and *Siva* as the destroyer. Though three in appearance, these are one in essence; and a particular sect may choose to concentrate on one or another personalized form as representative of the whole. Thus Vishnu is thought to have had several incarnations on earth, the most famous being Rama and Krishna as immortalized in the great Indian epics *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata*. Siva is usually associated with his female consort, the mother goddess Kali.

These various manifestations of Hindu belief are regarded as not contradictory but as representing different levels of understanding, the lower forms engaging the mind in the world of appearances but leading on to the higher forms for deeper comprehension. At the summit of Indian religious thought stands the *Bhagavad Gita*, a great poem embedded in the Mahabharata in which the god Krishna discourses on the Vedanta philosophy. He instructs his warrior disciple, Arjuna, in the Yoga wisdom or way of salvation through yoking oneself with the divine--which in this case is represented by Krishna himself.

Yoga may take one of four different forms. Karma Yoga, the way of work, is in Christian doctrine the way of Martha, as Bhakti Yoga, the way of devotion, is the way of Mary. Raja Yoga, the way of discipline, is a graded series of spiritual exercises; while Jnana Yoga, the way of wisdom, is the mastery of the Vedanta philosophy. Christianity is seen by Hindus as a Bhakti religion in which a personal God is concerned with man as a person--this being a dualist approach in which both God and man appear as real. In Hinduism, too, Bhakti is more common than Jnana, since only the select few attain to the nondualist or Vedanta view in which only the One (Brahman-Atman) is real, and all things else, including man, are Maya.

A NOTE ON BUDDHISM

Buddhism had its origin among the Indian foothills of the Himalayas about 500 years before Christ in the life and enlightenment of the prince Gautama. A member of the Kshatriya caste, Gautama shared the Indian belief in Karma and rebirth and, like the Vedanta school, sought release and liberation. His solution, however, was expressed in psychological rather than metaphysical terms. Appalled by the contrast between his own life of ease and the general suffering of mankind, Gautama renounced family and home to seek wisdom. After years of exacting search he at length, while sitting under a Bo Tree, attained complete enlightenment--hence his title of Buddha, the Enlightened One.

The Buddha had nothing to say about whether God exists or does not exist, whether the soul is immortal or not immortal--these, he said, are questions which do not lead to edification. Instead he summed up his teaching (Dharma) in the Four Noble Truths. First, life is equated with suffering, since even what brings pleasure will also bring sorrow when the time for parting with it comes. Second, the cause of suffering is desire, the craving for life being the source of disappointment and the occasion for rebirth. Third, the way to end suffering is to quench desire. Extinguish desire, he said, and one is free from the Wheel of Life. And fourth, desire is quenched by following the Eightfold Path, the path of right conduct and renunciation which leads to Enlightenment, to Peace of Mind, to the extinction of desire, to release from the Wheel of Becoming, and so to Nirvana.

Buddhism in this original form is known as Hinayana (lesser vehicle) or Theravada Buddhism, and it is still the form adhered to in Ceylon, Burma, Thailand, and Cambodia. This teaching is aimed not at the multitude but at the elect--the order of monks (Sangha) who withdraw from the world to give the pursuit of salvation the full-time attention which it requires. Ordinary folk obtain merit by giving alms to these "wearers of the saffron robe" in the hope that in a later incarnation they will have gained sufficient merit to join the order themselves. But only the monk himself, the "stream-winner," can become a "never-returner" or Arhat, one whose release from the Wheel of Rebirth means the final attainment of Nirvana. Each man thus walks alone and saves himself.

In contrast to Hinayana, another school of Buddhism, the Mahayana (greater vehicle), began splitting off in northern India about the time of Christ, later to be spread to China, Korea, Japan, Vietnam, and Tibet. This school preaches the doctrine of a Cosmic Buddha, of whom Gautama was but one of many incarnations, with salvation and entrance even into Buddhahood open to all mankind and not merely to the elect. Salvation and hence Nirvana itself are to be found not in escape from the Wheel of Life but precisely in the midst of the Wheel of Life through unattached and sublimated action. As according to Vedanta he who sees the Brahman in the Atman has attained his salvation, so according to Mahayana he who sees Nirvana in the Turning Wheel makes his daily life divine. But what Mahayana makes divine, Vedanta regards as illusion (Maya) and as acceptable only on a lower level of consciousness.

The promise of Mahayana, however, was not realized in northern India; and only when transferred to China and Japan did Buddhism cease to be a world-denying mysticism for the elect and become a more practical, if usually a less lofty, life-pattern for the masses. The favorite representation of the Cosmic Buddha became Amitabha (China) or Amida Butsu (Japan). Faith in this Amida by devotion (Bhakti) rather than by works (Karma) became the one essential of salvation. Even salvation--Nirvana--was transformed once again to become a material Paradise or True Pure Land, entrance to which could be obtained merely by calling on the name of Buddha. The Arhat who saved himself was replaced by the Bodhisattva who rejected personal salvation in order to remain in the world and save others, the Goddess of Mercy, Kwan-yin or Kwannon, being the most popular. Thus Buddha's compassion was spread so wide as to dispense with all discrimination, being available to the foolish equally with the wise and to sinners no less than to saints.

The extremes of world-denying mysticism and of popular indulgence have perhaps been best surmounted in the branch of Mahayana known as Ch'an in China and Zen in Japan. Zen rejects the usual creedal formulations even of Mahayana Buddhism on Gautama's old ground that they tend not to edification. But starting with the understanding that Nirvana is indeed rooted in the Wheel of Life, it concludes that for so transcendent a fact as this what is needed is not theoretical study but concrete awareness. A sudden shock of recognition (Satori) perhaps precipitated by jolting the mind with some logical absurdity (Koan) is for Zen the road to Enlightenment which others pursue by the Eightfold Path or by calling on Amida and which Gautama experienced 2, 500 years ago while sitting Yogi-fashion under the Bo Tree.

A NOTE ON ISLAM

Islam, an Arabic term meaning submission (to the will of God), is more than a religious system of faith and dogma. It is a civilization that determines the character of the Muslim (Moslem) state, society, law, and even philosophy and art to a far greater degree than does Christianity in relation to Europe and America. The essence of Islam as a religion is belief in the oneness and the mercy of God, the evil of paganism and idolatry, and the imminence of divine judgment.

The practice of Islam consists of the observance of five duties, oftentimes referred to as the "five pillars":

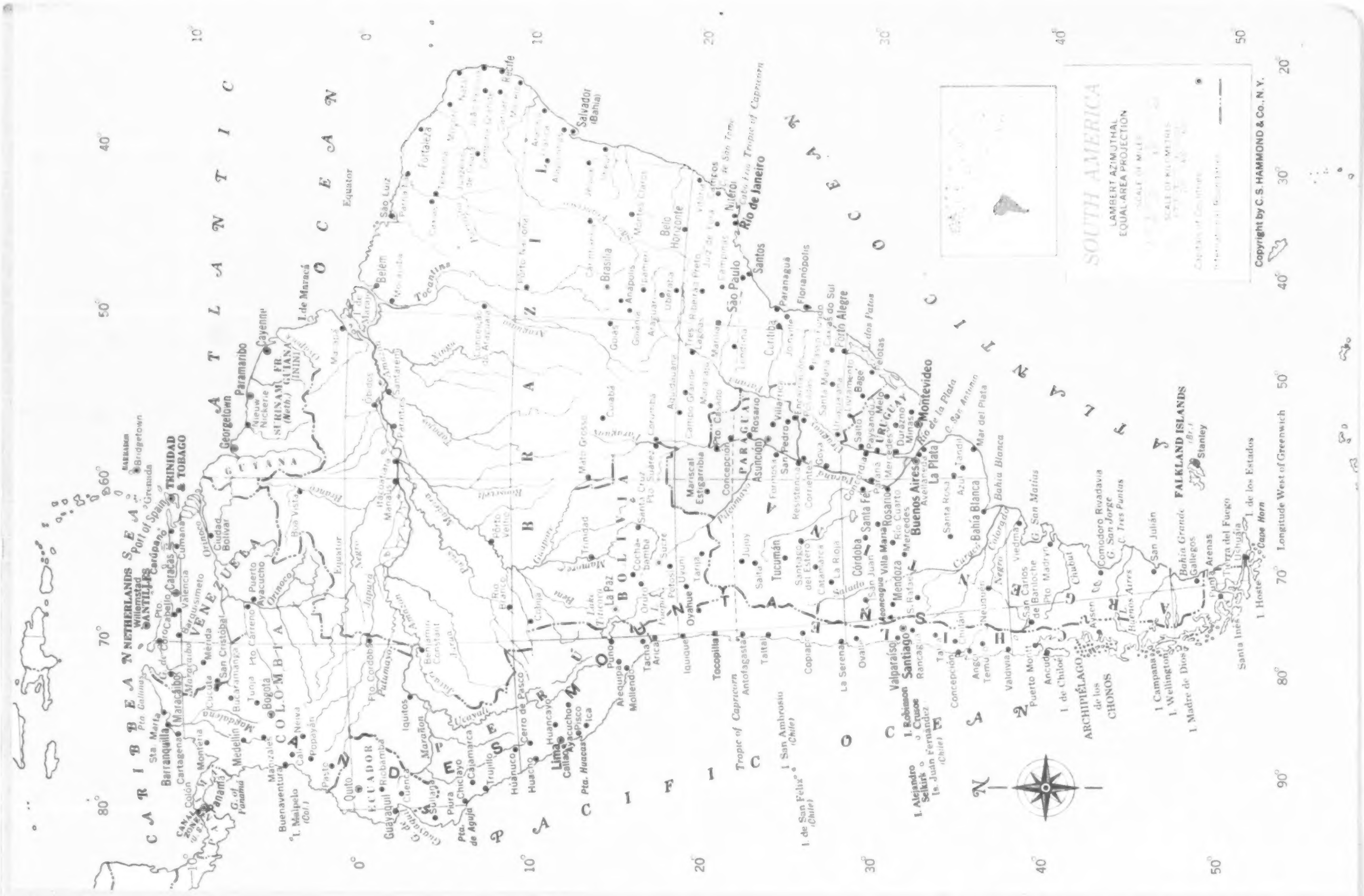
1. Recital of the Creed--"There is no god but Allah (God), and Muhammad is His Prophet." (Moses, Abraham, and Christ are also recognized as Prophets; Muhammad, however, is considered the last and greatest of them.)
2. Prayer five times a day between sunrise and sunset
3. Payment of religious alms
4. Fast from dawn until sunset each day during the month of Ramadan (the ninth month of the year)
5. Pilgrimage to Mecca at least once during a lifetime.

The chief sources of Islamic doctrine and law are the Qur'an (Koran), the collected revelations of God to Muhammad, and the Sunnah, or the practice of the divinely inspired Prophet. The latter were handed down by oral tradition (Hadith) and were later collected and given authority second only to the Qur'an. In time, these sources were supplemented by other sources through "reasoning by analogy" (Qiyas) and Consensus (Ijma). These sources became the basis of a complete rule of life and of a complex social and legal system.

Islam has no priesthood, but the ulema (learned) are the authorized interpreters of the Qur'an, supplying the muftis, who are charged with issuing rulings on matters of doctrine and law, and the qadis or judges, who administer the law. Annual religious holidays come at different seasons of our year, since the Muslim year is based on a lunar calendar of 354 or 355 days. Years are reckoned from A. D. 622, the year of the Hijra, or Muhammad's "migration" from Mecca to Medina. The Muslim year 1389 extends from March 20, 1969, to March 8, 1970.

A dispute over the succession to Muhammad following his death in A. D. 632 eventually led to the division of Muslims into two main factions: the Sunni, who accept the Sunnah or practice of Muhammad and recognize the first four elected Caliphs as the rightful successors to Muhammad, and the Shi'a, who contend that Ali, Muhammad's cousin and son-in-law, should have rightfully succeeded the Prophet as Caliph or Imam. The majority of Muslims are Sunni; the Shi'a are found primarily in Iran and southeastern Iraq.

Detailed information concerning Islamic practices and special observances (e.g., periods of fasting and feasting) may be obtained from the Islamic Center, 2551 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20008. The Center can also provide a calendar of the Muslim year (cost: $1).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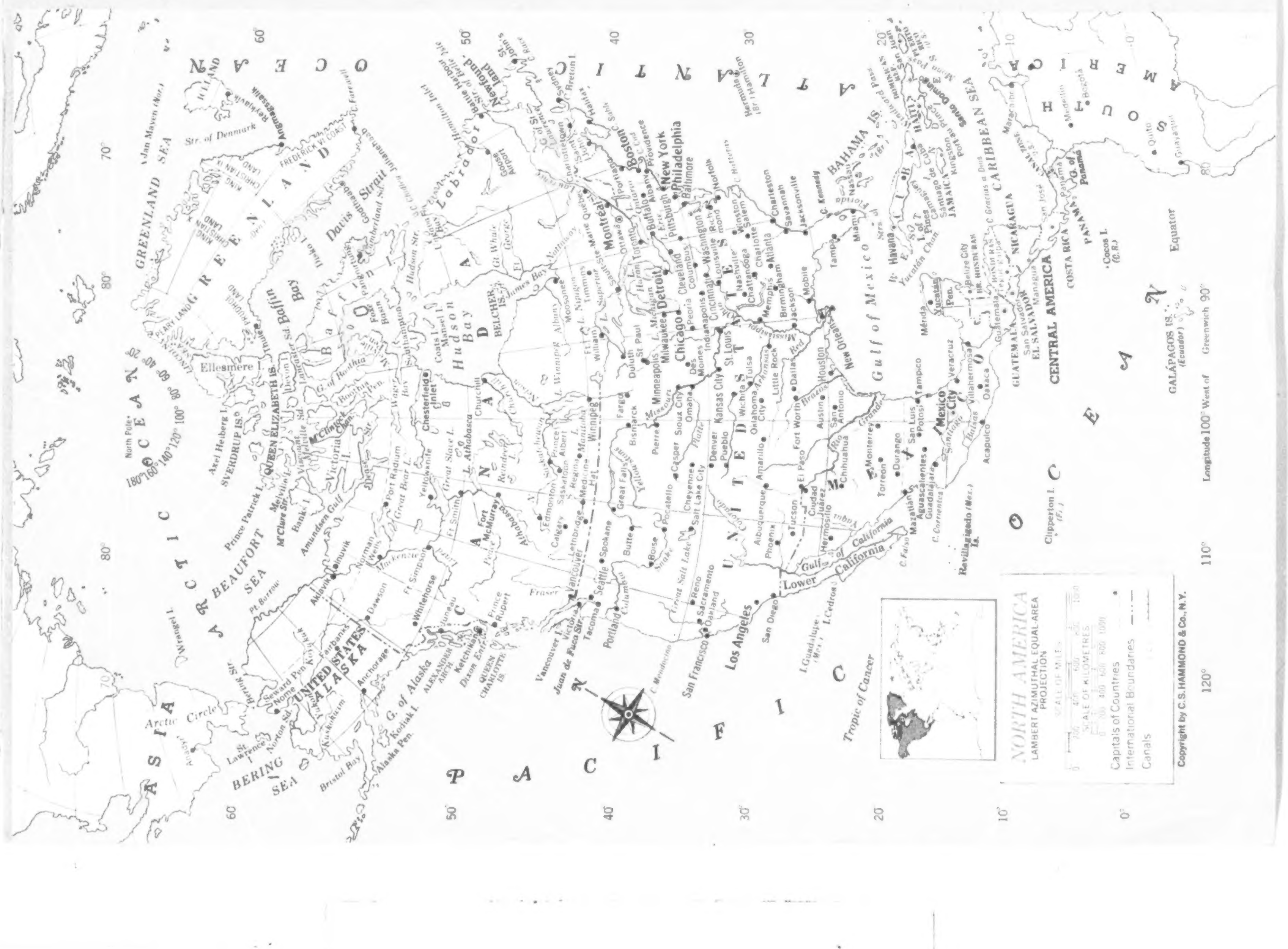
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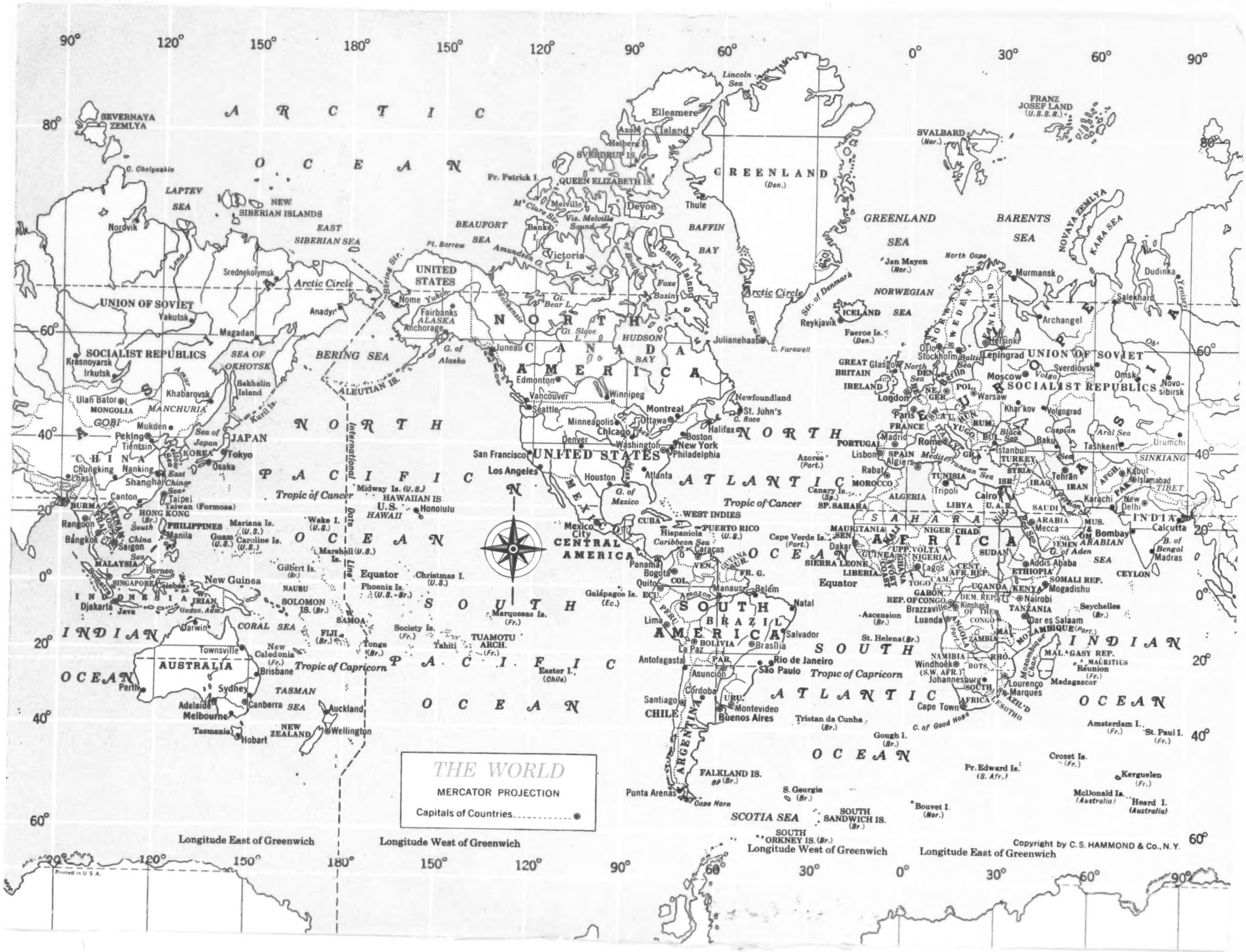

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